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N° 2126.

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LONDON, SATURDAY, OCTOBER 17, 1857.

REVIEWS.

The History, Architecture, and Antiquities of the Cathedral Church of St. Canice, Kilkenny. By the Rev. James Graves, A.B., and John G. Augustus Prim. Dublin. Hodges, Smith, and Co.

OUR fellow-subjects on the other side of the Channel are generally supposed to be largely gifted with the imaginative faculties. Now we should be sorry indeed to undervalue the imagination. Even for the investigation of facts it is an essential requisite. The preconceived theory which leads to the discovery of the laws of nature, and which conceives the manner of making them subservient to the uses of man, is the offspring of the imagination. When the apple, falling to the ground, and the flash in the clouds, and the stream of vapour from the tea-kettle, and the gigantic bones of extinct monsters, set Newton, and Franklin, and Watt, and Owen, a-thinking, it was imagination which enabled them to discover truth, and to apply it. When out of a mass of isolated facts and dreary chronicles, and medals, and inscriptions, Gibbon framed his immortal narrative, it was imagination which collected, combined, and vivified the picture in which we still behold the events and the manners of nearly two thousand years ago. Imagination is at once the spur and the rein to stimulate and to guide the reason into the track which it should follow.

But even imagination admits of abuse. In physical and historical science its office is to guide, to classify, to combine, and to represent, but not to create. It is useful to catch the affinities of things, and to conceive the probable results, and to place them before the mind's eye; but it is too often made to do duty instead of patient investigation and laborious induction. When it substitutes shadows for realities, and dreams for facts, then it usurps the place of investigation and reason. Now it must be allowed that our Hibernian brethren are a little apt to work the imagination a little too hard, particularly if they are of the genus antiquary. We recollect once meeting an Irish antiquarian friend in the library of the British Museum, and asking him how his book was getting on. "Oh," said he, "it is finished, and I am now going to look out for my authorities." It was this spirit, pervading, as it did, the whole body of Irish antiquaries, which made the very name a thing to fly from, as from a pestilence. We venture to say that there never was a subject, not even excepting unfulfilled prophecy, upon which such a diarrhoea of nonsense has been poured forth as that of Irish antiquities.

The first Irish antiquary, that we are aware of, who returned to the ways of common sense and sound induction, was Dr. Petrie; and his book on the round towers, or rather the early architecture of the nation, was, in consequence, extensively read and generally appreciated in this country. Both in the matter and the style it was felt to be totally distinct from its predecessors; and subsequent antiquaries are happily following in the track of sober investigation which Dr. Petrie has traced for them. Wild theories are no longer the staple of publications on the antiquities of Ireland; original documents of historic interest are being brought out by antiquarian societies; and now we have to welcome the appearance of Mr.

Graves's very creditable monograph on one of the few remains of mediæval church architecture which Ireland can boast of.

At the time when England was sunk in Paganism and darkness, Ireland possessed the light of Christian faith and learning. But the apostles whom she sent forth to convert England, or to found colleges for Charlemagne, lived in wattled hovels and worshipped in dens. When increasing intercourse and trade, in the 12th and 13th centuries, brought wealth and civilization to France, Germany, and England, and adorned their cities with magnificent temples and palaces, Ireland had returned to comparative barbarism. First the Danes, and then her own petty chieftains, her Norman conquerors, filled the country with rapine and warfare; and men were too much occupied with schemes of aggression or defence to think of taste, even if the general poverty of the country had admitted of splendour in domestic or ecclesiastical architecture. Mr. Graves informs us that the cathedral of St. Canice, at Kilkenny, is the most stately ecclesiastical building in Ireland; yet a glance at his visit of it is sufficient to show that it would hardly take rank with even a second-rate English parish church, much less with our collegiate churches or minsters. It could not be compared with St. Mary Redcliffe, or even Wyomondham. The portion of the book therefore which is occupied with descriptions of its details, will have little interest for the English reader.

Such as it is, however, the Cathedral of St. Canice is one of the few that Ireland possesses, and ought to be preserved. It is therefore little creditable to the taste or liberality of the Dean and Chapter, that it is in imminent danger of tumbling down for want of a small outlay judiciously employed. It is said that an Irish gentleman, when he was utterly ruined, used to keep up his credit for a while by building a magnificent house. On somewhat the same principle, we suppose, the ecclesiastical authorities of St. Canice set up a splendid new organ at a large cost, and recast the bells, when the roof of the church was in danger of falling about their ears. The best of the story is, that the new organ is rendered nearly useless by the damp, which streams down through the shattered roof—such is Irish economy.

Amongst the bishops whose remains rest in St. Canice's was Dr. Pococke, the celebrated Eastern traveller. The restoration and embellishment of his tomb was considered, it seems, a point of immense importance by the Dean and Chapter:—

"When the monument of Bishop Pococke was changed, in 1853, from the choir screen to its present position beneath the western window of this transept, the base of the central escutcheon shaft was removed to make room for a mitre which surmounts the monument. The writer endeavoured to have the monument lowered, or the mitre, which did not form a part of the original monument, dispensed with; but the Chapter authorities seemed to think the proposition derogatory to the episcopal dignity: the mitre was put up and the ancient sculpture had to give way. Truly, Bishop Pococke was unfortunate, both in his life and death, with regard to the architecture of the cathedral. The base is, however, preserved, with other fragments, in the small yard south of the choir, and may yet supplant the usurping mitre."

The point of greatest interest is the round tower, which has recently been cleared out and examined. It appears that this structure, which reaches the height of one hundred

feet, is actually built on soft loam, though the builder might have obtained a solid foundation of limestone rock, had he gone but a few feet lower. The loam is that which is commonly found in old churchyards, and is composed of the remains of generations of human beings. Within the area occupied by the base of the tower, Mr. Graves discovered several skeletons in good preservation, all laid, after the Christian custom, with the feet pointing towards the East. Two of them were actually enclosed in coffins, and the wall of the tower is built over them, so that part of the skeleton is within, and part without, the tower. This, of course, proves that the tower was built in a place which had been a graveyard for a considerable time, and that it was built after the introduction of Christianity; thus corroborating, in a remarkable way, the theory of Dr. Petrie, that the round towers of Ireland were simply the bell-towers of churches, and not in any way connected with Buddhism or fire-worship.

Much stress had been laid by the supporters of the Pagan theory on the fact that burned bones were often found in round towers, while cremation was a mode of burial never used by Christians. It appears, from the following extract from the letter of a medical man, Dr. Cane, that these apparently calcined bones had really never been subjected to the action of fire at all:—

"The adult bones were all fast crumbling to decay, but the bones of the child's head, which had separated and were detached, as parietal, frontal, &c., presented a remarkable appearance, which I noted at the time to the Rev. Mr. Graves and Mr. Grant, who handed them to me. They were so moist and pliant as to bend under the lightest pressure, giving a sensation to the fingers not unlike that of wetted pasteboard or damped biscuit, and which I then attributed to their own delicacy of texture, and the influence upon it of the rich mould beneath which they had lain for so many centuries. These bones have since dried out completely, and in doing so have lost their flexibility, and are most easily broken, exhibiting a short and brittle fracture; but that which has principally arrested my attention is the remarkable similitude which they now bear to burnt bones in colour, texture, and appearance: so much so that every one I have shown them to has pronounced them to be bones that were exposed to fire, and had been burned; and I would myself conclude such to be the fact, had I not assisted in removing them from the earth, and felt them while yet wet and pliant from the rich soil they lay in.

"I am thus particular in alluding to this matter, because we so frequently hear of burnt bones being found in these towers, that the fact observed here suggests a doubt, whether all these bones described as being burned, were really so,—or whether the appearance may not be the result of time and peculiar alkaline soils acting on bone young and full of animal matter, whereby the animal matter is converted into soap and escapes, moisture fills up the porous cellular texture of the bone, and so makes it soft and pliable; but when exposure to dry air drains off the moisture, the cellular structure then remains with open cells and dry, brittle walls, as in burnt bone, where fire performs these offices more speedily.

"I cannot conclude this brief notice of the bones found beneath the Round Tower of St. Canice, without, as a reader of Petrie's elaborate book on the Round Towers, expressing my poor evidence in favour of his views,—views to which I have become a convert from the perusal of his work."

The Church itself, with its round tower, is discussed in one hundred and twenty six pages. It is shown that the origin of the town of Kilkenny was a *cenobium* for monks, brought together by St. Kieran.

These men introduced at once the Christian faith, a knowledge of letters, and the arts of agriculture and mechanics, among the barbarous tribes who inhabited the country in the latter end of the fourth and beginning of the fifth century. Around this little community a lay population gathered in course of time; but the monastery gradually decayed, till, towards the end of the sixth century, Canice, the friend of Columbkille, resuscitated it at Aghaboe, and gave his name to the city which sprung up around it; for Kilkenny is nothing but "the Church of Canice." The remaining two hundred and twenty-two pages are occupied entirely with descriptions of the monuments and notices of those to whose memory they were erected. Amongst these the fortunes of Sir Piers Butler, the head of the house in the fifteenth century. Sir James Butler married Sabina, daughter of Mac Murrongh, a native king; but they were cousins, and a dispensation from Rome was necessary before they could be legally married. Before the dispensation arrived, however, the lady had borne Sir James two sons, Edmond and Theobald. By the Canon law, the subsequent marriage of the parents rendered these sons legitimate, and the fact was symbolized by the priest covering the children with his stole when he married the parents. But after the marriage, another son, Piers, was born, and was therefore their heir by the common law. On Sir James's death, however, Sir Edmond took possession of his father's estates, and from that time forth the brothers were deadly enemies, till at last the elder was slain by the younger under the following romantic circumstances. They are thus related by Stanishurst:—

"Great and manifold were the miseries the ladie Margaret sustained, hir husband Piers Butler being so egerlie pursued by the vsurper, as he durst not beare up hed, but was forced to houer and lurke in woods and forrests. The noble woman being great with child, and vpon necessitie constrained to use a spare diet (for hir onelie sustenance was milke) she longed sore for wine, and calling hir lord, and a trustie seruant of his, James White, vnto hir, she requested them both to helpe hir to some wine, for she was not able anie longer to indure so strict a life. Trulie Margaret, quoth the earle of Ossorie, thou shalt haue store of wine within this foure and twentie houres, or else thou shalt feed alone on milke for me. The next daie following, Piers having intelligence that his enemie the base Butler would haue trauelled from Donmore to Kilkennie, notwithstanding he were accompanied with six horssemen: yet Piers hauing none but his lackie, did forestall him in the waie, and with a couragious charge gored the bastard through with his speare."

The book is dedicated to the memory of the late Marquis of Ormonde, who died suddenly of apoplexy while bathing with his children, and was buried in the cathedral. A description of his tomb, though so recent a work, might perhaps be allowable; but to give a minute description of the funeral, together with an extract from the funeral sermon, is too much in the style of a provincial newspaper for a quarto volume of such pretensions as this. This, however, is comparatively a trivial fault, and does not counterbalance the merits of the work, the whole tone of which is extremely good. Mr. Graves is evidently an enthusiastic student of ecclesiastical architecture, and thoroughly understands his subject. The illustrations are by no means bad; the book is pleasantly written, and is altogether a very creditable addition to the antiquarian literature of Ireland.

CURRENT POETRY.

Poems Inspired by certain Pictures in the Art Treasures Exhibition, Manchester. By Tennyson Longfellow Smith, &c. Dedicated, &c., to the immortal Buskin. Manchester: Sold at the Bookstall of the Exhibition.

Footprints of Life, and other Poems. By Alsager Hay Hill. Cheltenham: Davies.

May Carols. By Aubrey de Vere. Longman and Co.

Poems. By Mrs. Frank P. Fellows. Smith, Elder, and Co.

A Summer Evening Reverie, and other Poems. By William Tidd Matson. R. Bulman.

If Manchester is entitled to the glory of having originated the Art Exhibition, so, too, must she bear the responsibility of having given birth to sundry doggerel verses, stated upon the title-page to have been "inspired by certain pictures," &c. The object of the slender poetaster to whom we are indebted for this brochure, is to be very funny at the expense of the pre-Raphaelites. The character of his humour may be inferred from the opening lines on Holman Hunt's picture of *The Awakened Conscience*:—

"Now, really, Mr. Holman Hunt, this can't be called correct, And in your more developed stage what are we to expect? Some things there are, you know, *bon ton* don't recognise at all.
I'm really quite surprised that you should paint a what-d'ye-call!

"Madam; the painter do not blame with too severe a tongue,
The creature from the canvas speaks, 'I'm neither fair nor young.
And Mr. Hunt, with moral aim, would frighten every gent
From taking up with such as me, on wickedness when bent."

"My hollow cheeks, my starting eyes, my red, dishevelled hair,
Should horror strike in those bad men who've known what once they were;
Whilst Frederic, grinning by my side, a swell, a fool, a muff,
To sicken all right-minded girls is surely quite enough."

This is a favourable specimen, because it is intelligible, a rare merit in these feeble and pointless *jeux d'esprit*. The moral of the picture is not ill travestied in the lines we have quoted; but the writer cannot sustain the vein of irony. The humour is flat, literal, frequently obscure, and not unfrequently vulgar. We might as reasonably hope to gather grapes from thistles, as wit from a farceur who considers it a stroke of satire to call himself "Tennyson Longfellow Smith," and to designate a well-known art critic "the immortal Buskin." Jokes of this kind belong to the *cirque*, where, delivered with appropriate facial extravagance, they might make the illiterate gods roar; but they are very dreary in print.

The fragmentary poem, entitled 'Footprints of Life,' contains "the wanderings of a maniac mind," contemplating death as a release from its sufferings. We cannot collect very clearly the causes of the great mental agonies darkly hinted at in the verse. They seem to have arisen partly from ordinary misfortunes, but chiefly from the morbid state of the poet's health. The origin of his malady may be traced, we fear, to a constitutional source. Mr. Hill tells us that even when he was a child he betrayed this melancholy temperament:—

"Men ever said my ways were wild,
So strange, ill-suited to the child;
And oft—I can recall it now—
A shade shot o'er my father's brow,
As, mingling in my boyhood play,
He watched me pine and turn away.
And sometime through the lazy hours,
I'd cast me on the wild wood flowers—

Or, musing 'mid the mountain heath,
Weep o'er our life, and dream of death,
Till brook and glade, and bird and tree,
All these were little worlds to me."

If the young gentleman's father had sent off the boy to some public school, where he would have been put through a course of active discipline, and been compelled to take regular exercise in the open air, this juvenile tendency to "dream of death" might have been diverted; but the shade that shot o'er the old gentleman's brow appears to have darkened the paternal judgment, for no such remedial measure as change of scene or associations was resorted to. The boy was left in the old school-house, where all the surrounding objects encouraged him in his dreams, even to the "belted bees" that murmured on their "dreamy way," and the "wilding lark" whose "eddie sweetness" flew "dreamlike"—

"There, just across the road, where still
Yon hour arch spans the hisping rill,
The dear old school-house, by the wood—
Where yet it stands in memory—stood;
And oh! the linnet's note was free,
Thrilled upward on the acacia tree—
While belted bees, from spray to spray,
Flew murmuring on their dreamy way.
And there, how oft, when thoughts were dark,
My soul sped with the wilding lark,
Whose eddie sweetness onward flew,
So dreamlike in the eternal blue!
Like thee, lone bird, my nest is low,
Damp—fostered in the dews of dew."

The consequences of this early initiation into the miseries of human existence may be seen in the gloom which, from that time forth, settled down upon his life. A death occurs while he is at school. He is loitering in a cowslip glen, when he hears a far-off bell throbbing on the air. The grave has hitherto been merely a vague wretchedness to him. Now it becomes a reality. He asks, "Is not some one dead?"—

"'Twas in the spring, the violet's eye
Was bright with purple ecstasies,
And still, though earth around was clear,
Still, still those notes were fraught with fear.
A glance! a dream! I know not what—
It seemed that all I loved was not!"

From this moment we may date the life of "night-thoughts," that have found a vent in these octo-syllabic bursts of despair. Mr. Hill looks, we cannot say cheerfully, but with a kind of dismal delight, to his release from mundane obligations. He talks exultingly of the poet soul, "god-like still," sweeping "upward to the opened goal." He thinks that "at best" man's "weak vision" looks "through a tear," and that the whole of creation is steeped in briny floods, even to the flowered pattern on Nature's waistcoat:—

"Nor shines a flower on Nature's vest,
But hides one dew-drop in its breast!"

He considers it, nevertheless,

"hard to die
Without a murmur or a sigh;"

but, haunted by "spectres of remorse" for some horrible crime which he probably did not commit, he finally haunts the approach of death with a sort of frantic ecstasy. The passage is not quite as explicit as could be desired, but it is a highly characteristic sample both of the philosophy and the verse:—

"Oh! had I—nay, 'tis all too late—
To crouch or crave at mercy's gate,
Or, trembling as the beaten hare,
Turn nursing to a vile despair—
No, no! it suits not souls like mine
To sicken, sorrow, or repine:
For better far, thus 'biding time,
To reap the harvest of my crime,
Than, fearful of some unknown fray,
To cut, yet bear no sheaves away,
And thankful since my lots are cast,
I joy this hour must be my last!
And yet my life—I call it life—
A sea-weed on the surge of strife,
Perchance long since—I cannot know—
Forged shackles for my soul below!"

If we might venture to draw a moral from this poem, it would point to the importance of an energetic course of hydropathic treatment at an early period of life, in all cases wherein the germs of a morbid poetical temperament are detected. A dreamy boy plunged into a cold bath early in the morning before he is quite awake, packed into wet sheets at noon, and submitted to the douche two or three times a day, would be speedily cured of his phantasies, unless his normal condition was beyond the reach of art. It is too late to recommend hydropathy to the grown-up poet; but we may suggest to him the necessity of looking a little more carefully after his rhymes. "Laugh," for example, does not rhyme to "path," as Mr. Hill supposes:—

"And many a time the school-boy laugh
Broke on that wild sequestered path."

In common with some authors whose pretensions in other respects are not so ambitious, Mr. Hill inserts an *r* in the pronunciation of words ending with the sound of *awn* or *am*. The frequent recurrence of examples shows that Mr. Hill has educated his ear upon this principle:—

"We sat in childhood's laughing morn,
And knit trim daisies on the lawn."

Knitting is in request with our author. In another place he says that the poet,

"Musing on the heavenly throng,
May knit the sunbeams into song."

But to return to our rhymes:—

"Oh! softly now on field or lawn,
Trip forth the footsteps of the morn."

In both cases it is clearly intended that "lawn" should be pronounced "loru." Here is another example of the principle applied to a different word:—

"No breath—no stir—in such an hour,
Mid Nature's universal calm;
Alike yon oak, and hedgerow flower,
Sleep in the moonbeam's silver arm."

In like manner we are expected to pronounce "thought" "thort":—

"Look up! look up! the vulture Thought
Swoops fiend-like on life's blasted wreath,
And screaming in his frenzied sport,
Flouts fearless in the eyes of Death—

"Or, speeding in their chariot thoughts,
Walk in the heavens' bejewelled courts."

Lord Chesterfield says that whatever is worth doing is worth doing well; and assuredly if it be worth while to write in rhyme, it is worth while to terminate the lines with consonant sounds.

The propriety of applying the title of "May Carols" to a collection of religious poems, which embrace almost every phase of historical Christianity, especially in its relations to the church of Rome, of which the author is a devout adherent, may be doubted. "Christmas Carols" would have been as appropriate, and more suggestive. In the earnestness of his faith, the reverential spirit in which he approaches sacred subjects, his intimate knowledge of the doctrines and formulæ of the church, and his mixture of a little secular fancy with pious thoughts and figures, Mr. De Vere closely resembles the Jesuit Southwell. But he has not so much pith in his verse. He is not so compact, nor at any time so graceful as Southwell was capable of being occasionally. His poems, however, evince scholarship and pure taste, and are distinguished from the crowd of volumes amongst which we find them by their thoughtfulness and strength. They do not beat the air with empty sounds. The sense generally fills out the verse, and gives it substance and meaning. There is an obvious touch of affectation in the titles of the

pieces, but the whole work is conceived in a high vein of "purple pride," and simple titles would not suit its pretensions. It is not easy to find a passage of a character sufficiently popular for quotation; the following stanzas, however, will indicate the general style and manner, and afford an example of the measure, which is uniform throughout:—

"A sudden sun-burst in the woods,
But late and Winter's palace dim!
O'er quickening boughs and bursting buds
Pacific glories shoot and swim."

"As when some heart, grief-darkened long,
Conclusive joy by force invades—
So swift the new-born splendours throng,
Such lustre swallows up the shades."

"The sun we see not; but his fires
From stem to stem obliquely smite,
Till all the forest aisle respires
The golden-tongued and liquid light."

"The caverns blacken as their brows
With floral fire are fringed; but all
Yon sombre vault of meeting boughs
Turns to a golden fleece its pall."

"As o'er it breeze-like music rolls,
O Spring, thy limit-line is crossed!
O Earth, some orb of singing Souls
Brings down to thee thy Pentecost."

It would be unjust to dismiss the book without making room for a sample of the subjects to which it is almost exclusively addressed. The above extract is exceptional; the spirit of the poems will be better represented in the following verses:—

"MATER ADMIRABILIS.

"O mother-maid! to none save thee
Belongs in full a Parent's name;
So fruitful thy Virginity,
Thy Motherhood so pure from blame!"

"All other persons, what are they?
Thy types. In them thou stoolest rehearsed,
(As they in bird, in bud, and spray)
Thine antitype! The Eternal First!"

"Prime Parent He; and next Him thou!
O'ershadowed by the Father's Might,
Thy 'Fiat' was Thy bridal vow;
Thine offspring He, the 'Light of Light.'"

"Her Son thou wert; Her Son thou art,
O Christ! Her substance fed Thy growth;
She shaped Thee in her virgin heart,
Thy Mother and thy Father both!"

Southwell might have written this, even to the conceit with which it terminates; but we are bound to add that Southwell's Christianity—in his poems at least—was more universal in its utterance. Mr. De Vere thinks less of large and common doctrines than of the special creed and ordinances of his church. He is more Roman than the Romans; and his poems, therefore, are less likely to be read for their poetical merits than their ultra-montane zeal.

There are certain classes of subjects which come legitimately within the province of ladies who, to speak euphuistically, dally with the Muses. We are not here discussing the question as to whether women—judging out of the past experiences of the world—are more happily employed in depicting emotions or in producing them; that is to say, in other words, whether they are more successful in making the poetry of books or the poetry of real life. We limit our speculations for the present to the classes of subjects which seem to lie most conveniently within their reach, and upon which their delicate tastes and quick sensibilities may be most appropriately exercised. Heroic subjects are clearly out of their line. War, pestilence, revolutions, and the like, are beyond the range of their observation and their sympathy. Metaphysical investigations, and polemics of all kinds, may be marked "Dangerous" to ladies, as unsafe spots on the Serpentine are marked to skaters. Harsh and grave subjects that task the intellect severely are not eligible for that sex

whose strength lies in its weakness; and to encourage women to undertake such labours would be as reprehensible as to require them to work in the fields or the forges. Their heads are as charming and as dainty as their hands, and should be equally exempt from toil. But there are matters which come properly within the scope of their opportunities and their powers—such, for instance, as the inculcation of kindly feelings towards the poor (taking care to keep clear of political economy), the fluctuations of the seasons, the whole surface drama of society, and, perhaps, the passion of love in its romantic and conventional aspects. Here are topics enough for womanly ambition to deal with, yielding an ample variety of sentimental and sprightly occasions for pathos, fancy, and feminine caprice to flit through the lines. Mrs. Fellows, whose little volume of poems is the next on our list, judiciously restricts herself, with one exception, to such easy themes as we have indicated. Dismissing her commemoration of "The Battle of the Alma," as an aberration of patriotic enthusiasm which, considering the agitation of the period, may be fairly excused, she writes generally upon things with which her sex may be reasonably supposed to be acquainted—*ex. gr.*—"The Balcony," "A Night History," "Parted Lovers," "The Ladies' Wooing," "Fancies by the Fire," and that indefinite budget of particulars which modern poets include under the elastic and miscellaneous title of "Lines." There is nothing in any of these subjects so profound or esoteric that may not be easily compassed by the understanding of a woman; and Mrs. Fellows is not deficient in the capacity requisite to treat them as they are usually treated by ladies. The best poem in the book is the first. It has a practical bearing, and shows, in somewhat conventional relief, the opposition between luxury and knowledge on the one hand, and poverty and ignorance on the other. We cannot extract the whole, but we will give a fragment. It is entitled—

"SUMMER THOUGHTS.

"Pleasant it is in the summer-time
Upon the turf to lie,
And watch the clouds flit slowly on
Across the fair blue sky;
And listen while the happy birds
Make merry minstrelsy."

"There be thousands in our city,
In noisome alleys pent,
Where every breath of air that comes
Is foul and pestilent;
Where from the narrow casements
All that they can descry
Are the reeking, rotten houses
And a little square of sky;
There, crowded altogether,
To live as best they may,
Are children, men, and maidens,
And the mother of yesterday."

"Pleasanter yet in summer-time
Beneath the shade to read
Of enterprise, and lofty thought,
And high heroic deed;
And of the faith that bore the martyr through
His fiery hour of need."

"There be thousands in our city
To whom all books are sealed;
From whom the wealth of written thought
Must ever lie concealed.
There be thousands more whose only lore
Are tales of guilt and blood,
Of robbers and of murderers
That have long the law withstood.
These are the people's classics,
On these the people feed;
And the felons in our prisons
Are the fruit of this foul seed."

An appeal to England to rise up and slay the giant Ignorance necessarily follows, and the animated lyric winds up by calling upon the people to work together to cleanse the fair city from misery and crime. All this is

in the right vein, and Mrs. Fellows strikes at the root of the evil when she desires the missionaries of this much-needed reformation to begin with the children:—

"Begin with the little children,
And kindly, earnestly,
Teach the dignity of labour,
The disgrace of beggary;
Perchance this good example
Some older heart may win
To leave, for better, happier ways,
The crooked paths of sin."

The tendency of this little piece is excellent; although there is not a gleam of originality either in the conception or execution. It treads a well-beaten track, much in the same way as others have trodden it before. But it is better than moonbeams, rainbows, and stars; it contains old reflections which cannot be repeated too often, and it is very likely to drop a healthy suggestion into any stray idle mind it happens to capture.

There are some peculiarities in Mrs. Fellows' verse which it is desirable to notice. She is fond of startling contrasts and artificial iterations. We have already given an example of the former, in a poem where the contrast arises naturally out of the subject; but there are other cases in which the subject is eliminated, so to speak, out of the contrast. This curious difference requires a little explanation. It is not a difference of form, but of substance; it is not the substitution of one mode of treatment for another, but of words for ideas; it is making the empty mould do duty for the pudding. The following is a very complete example of a subject eliminated out of a contrast. We give the poem entire.

"SUNRISE AND SUNSET."

"At Sunrise he went forth, his lady-love to meet;
At Sunset still he came not, though his step was light and fleet.

At Sunrise she looked forth, smiling, o'er the castle wall;
At Sunset she looked forth, and fast her tears did fall.

At Sunrise he had donned his suit of purple pall,
At Sunset it was sullied with a dark stain over all.

At Sunrise her fair maidens filled with wine a cup of gold;
At Sunset still it reddened in the massive goblet old.

At Sunrise his joy-song was echoed far and wide;
At Sunset he lay mute, with an arrow in his side.

At Sunrise she had braided her locks with meikle care;
At Sunset she had scattered her long and flowing hair.

At Sunset she had wandered forth on her mournful quest;
At Sunrise she had found him, and lay dead upon his breast."

It is the contrast between sunrise and sunset that wholly supplies the matter to which the attention of the public is here solicited. The lady smiling over the castle wall, and the gentleman who, although his step was light, didn't come, are mere auxiliaries, and owe their existence to the two phases of the day, whose opposition they were created to illustrate. Indeed the subject, or story, is so secondary in the mind of the author, that she calls the poem, not after the lovers whose unhappy fate it records with such antithetic brevity, but after the antithesis out of the collision of which they are, so to speak, struck.

Of the artificial iterations, a shorter example must suffice:—

"I loved her, I loved her!
And she loved me.
'Twas in the gorgeous summer-time
Of that sunny southern clime,
When first I whispered, 'I love thee.'

"I loved her, I loved her!
And she loved me,
And with a voice more sweet than song
She murmured, 'I have loved thee long,
In silence and in secrecy.'"

And so on—

"I loved her, I loved her!
And she loved me!"

through seventeen stanzas. The effect of this may be imagined. It is a kind of button-holding in verse, that becomes all the more intolerable from the affected earnestness of

the feeling. If a man were really in earnest in announcing the not very remarkable fact that he loved her, he would not repeat it quite so often in the same set terms. He would vary it a little, if it were only to relieve his own feelings. But the fact is, there is not a tinge of passion in the business. It is a mere trick of words.

We must not omit to observe, to the credit of these little pieces, that the verse is constructed on rhythmical principles, and not on mechanical syllabification. Possibly Mrs. Fellows, like Pope, may be unconscious of the merits which her critics discover in her; but, without asserting that her diction is very affluent, or her musical feeling very sensitive, it is certain that the swing of her verse, in spite of occasional awkwardnesses, is infinitely preferable to the dull tramp of lines that step with measured pace the eternal round of the finger tips. She must be somewhat more careful, however, of her rhymes, which, justly balanced, are useful helps to the melody. She must not, for example, make "constancy" rhyme to "fancy," or she will inevitably dislocate her measure.

The precise characteristics, if there be any, which impart individuality to the muse of Mr. Matson, are not easily detected. His poems are very like the vernal verse which one meets with in the rhymers' nooks of country newspapers, and they appear to be composed exactly of those unsophisticated elements which are pleasant to the taste of aboriginal readers. Here is the first stanza of a song which would produce a sensation in the sanded parlour of a village hostelry:—

"To and fro, the lilies blow,
With a lazy murmur,
And the buzz-bees come and go,
Hiving sweets of summer;
Yet amidst the pleasant time
Grief thrusts in a splinter;
Autumn evenings come and go,
Leading up to winter."

A chorus would make this perfect—"To and fro, come and go!" with a resonant refrain. We will answer for it that the company would take no exception to the lazy murmur of the lilies, or to Grief thrusting a splinter into Time, and that their enthusiasm would not permit them to perceive the slight discordance between "murmur" and "summer."

Mr. Matson tries all moods of the lyre—politics, piety, rural life, didactic philosophy, and abstract sentiment. His tiny volume is an olio of experiments, and seems to indicate a succession of attempts to ascertain the direction in which his strength lies. It will save him much future disappointment if he will manfully take advantage of the ordeal through which he is now passing, and gather a little wisdom from experience. If he be resolved to prosecute an unprofitable suit to the Muses, he must speak a natural language, and, instead of dressing himself up in the phraseology or forms of other writers, he must wear his own clothes. Observe the manner in which a young gentleman of twenty-three, who must have been born somewhere about 1834, opens a chapter of reminiscences, which he calls "Cherished Scenes":—

"How sweet to walk at eventide,
Amid the gathering shades,
And listen while the curfew's chime
Comes softened o'er the meads."

We should like to know when and where Mr. Matson heard the chime of the curfew? The reminiscence, we suspect, is not of the river Lea, where he places the scene, but of a certain Elegy in a Country Churchyard.

Even the rustic pieces, which are nearer to a real inspiration than anything else in the collection, consist of faint and far-off echoes of styles long gone down into oblivion. The ditty of 'The Farrier's Daughter' may be described as a cross between Shenstone and Dibdin. Take the first two verses:—

"The cottage overlooks the stream,
Built on the marge of Una Water;
There as I oared my boat along,
Beneath the pallid moonlight gleam,
I heard the music of her song,
The farrier's lovely daughter.

"It echoed sweetly on the night,
A murmur like to falling water;
And leaning on the window sill,
I marked her there, in truth, a sight
To make a very hermit thrill,
The farrier's lovely daughter."

This is less true to real life than the 'Rat-catcher's Daughter,' and not half so funny. The odes interspersed here and there to Genius, Hope, and other exhausted themes, are at best flitting recollections, of which the writer himself we have no doubt is perfectly unconscious, intermixed with tawdry rhapsodies. The closing stanza of an ode to Memory will afford a sufficient sample:—

"I love thee, ancient Memory!
Not every hope hath my desire evaded;
Life still is very dear to me,
Nor hath the beauty of the Past all faded;
With thee, Memory, hand in hand
I roam, as through a classic land,
That still retained a touch, a tone
Of glories flown."

This sounds as if it had a meaning, but there is no more sense in it than in the boom of a gong.

Gore of Uma. Komediya, &c. St. Petersburg. *Gore of Ouma*. A Comedy from the Russian of Griboiedoff. Translated by Nicholas Bernardaky. Simpkin, Marshall, and Co. VERY few English readers know anything of the literature of Russia. They are scarcely acquainted with the very names of authors whose works have been frequently translated in France and Germany. A Russian periodical is published twice a month in London, styled 'Kolokol' (The Bell), but it is very seldom that a Slavonic writer appears here in an English dress. Mr. Bernardaky has now introduced a popular Russian author to the public, and he is fairly entitled to the thanks of all whom he has enabled to make a pleasant acquaintance.

Alexander Sergeyevich Griboyedov was born in the year 1795, and received his education at the University of Moscow. In 1812 he entered the army as a cornet in the Moscow Hussars, under Count Saltykov, on whose death he exchanged into the Irkutsk Hussars, commanded by General Kologrivov, from whom he received great kindness. His military service extended over four years, at the end of which he left the army, and went to St. Petersburg. In 1815 his first comedy was produced on the stage, and met with considerable success—the *Molodyie Suprugy*, or, 'The Young Couple.' This introduced him to the leading men of letters, and among others to Grech, the editor of the *Suin Otchestva*, 'Son of the Fatherland,' an excellent periodical, still in existence, to which he contributed several articles. Another of his intimate friends was A. A. Gendre, along with whom he brought out, in 1817, a version of the *Faussees Infidelites* of Barthe, under the title of *Pritvornaya Neverynost*.

The next year he produced a third comedy, *Svoya Sem'ya*, 'One's Family,' in which he had the assistance of Prince A. A. Chakovsky, and the poet N. J. Khmyelnitsky.

By this time he had become a man of note. In 1817 he was appointed to a situation under the Minister for Foreign Affairs, and was soon after sent to Persia, as Secretary to the Russian Embassy at the Court of the Shah. He remained there about four years, during which time he added a knowledge of the Persian tongue and literature to his previous acquaintance with the languages of France, Germany, Italy, and England. Bulgarin, in the memoir he has prefixed to the edition of *Gore of Uma* published by him in 1854, says that Griboyedov gained the esteem of the whole English Mission at Tabriz, and became a great favourite with Abbas Mirza. He appears to have liked the country and the people, little foreseeing how sadly his life was to terminate among them. But his thoughts constantly reverted to St. Petersburg, and it was at this time that he wrote *Gore of Uma*, which was completed at Tiflis in 1822. The next year he returned to St. Petersburg. He had obtained leave of absence for a short time only, but it was prolonged in consequence of the war which now broke out between Russia and Persia, and he remained for two years in the metropolis. During this period he contributed to several of the journals, among others to the *Suin Otechestva*, in which he wrote the poetry for a ballet called 'Ruslan and Ludmilla,' and to the 'Polar Star,' in which he translated the Prologue to *Faust*.

In 1825 he was sent to South Russia, where he was employed by Prince Paskievich in several negotiations. In the course of these he visited the Crimea, and spent some time in Georgia, where he gathered the materials for a tragedy called the *Georgian Night*, and wrote a poem called 'The Robbers on the Chech,' published in the 'Northern Bee.'

On his return to Russia, after an interview with the Emperor, he was appointed Aulic Councillor, and shortly afterwards he was sent as ambassador to the Persian Court at Teheran. He stopped for a time at Tiflis, and there married the daughter of Prince Chevchevadsev. Honour and happiness appeared to be now within his grasp. High station, the esteem of his Emperor, a host of affectionate friends, a loving wife, he had gained, and a noble career seemed to lie before him. It was otherwise fated. He reached Teheran at an unfortunate time. Persia had been greatly humbled by the late war, and compelled to sign an ignominious treaty. The people were galled by a sense of humiliation, and heavily burdened by taxes. Griboyedov does not appear to have understood the arts of conciliation, and he increased the irritation instead of soothing it. An accident brought the matter to a crisis. An Armenian took refuge from the police in the ambassador's house. Griboyedov refused to give him up, claiming him as a Russian subject. At the same time he was sheltering two Georgian women who had escaped from their Persian masters, and this had already given rise to an angry feeling on the part of the populace. On the 27th of March, 1829, a crowd collected about the gates of the embassy, and commenced an attack on the house. The Cossack guards fired on the Persians, and killed several of them. The dead bodies were carried to the mosques, and there exhibited publicly. The people became infuriated; a fresh attack was made on the ambassador's dwelling, the doors were forced in, and Griboyedov was killed along with his under secretary, his physician, and fifteen

others of his suite. Four only escaped of the whole household.

The Shah had marched at the head of his troops to quell the tumult, but before he reached the scene the massacre was over. Foreseeing the wrath of Russia, he ordered an eight days' mourning in the city, and sent his grandson to express his sorrow to Paskievich. The General sent the young Prince on to St. Petersburg, where he found the Emperor in a state of just indignation. Prince Dolgorucky was despatched to Teheran, with instructions to demand satisfaction for the insult offered to Russia. A severe example was made. Fifteen hundred of the insurgents were cruelly mutilated, and the Chief Mollah, who had taken part in the tumult, was banished.

On the 29th of July, 1829, the remains of Griboyedov were buried, with funeral pomp, in the monastery of St. David, at Tiflis. During his last ride from Erivan, he had said to his companion, "Do not leave my bones in Persia if I die there, but bury me at Tiflis, in St. David's Monastery." He had a great love for the spot, and had mentioned it in his tragedy, *The Georgian Night*. It was there he had married, and there he found his last resting-place. His mother and widow were pensioned by the Emperor, and a monument has been erected to his memory at Moscow.

The comedy translated by Mr. Bernardaky is the best of Griboyedov's works. Its title, *Gore of Uma*, means 'Misfortune from Cleverness,' and is intended to represent the bad reception that attends the man who is wiser than his neighbours. The plot is very meagre: there is little or no incident, and the conclusion is very lame. The whole merit of the play consists in its delineations of character, and the sprightliness of the dialogue. To the English reader some of the scenes are particularly interesting, as giving him an insight into the Russian society of the time.

The hero of the drama, the owner of the wisdom which proves so unlucky to him, is one Alexander Andreevitch Tchatsky. He is in love with Sophia Paulovna, the daughter of a distinguished official called Famoussov. The lady, however, is attached to Moltchaline, her father's secretary, who pretends, from motives of policy, to return her affection, while he really cares only for her maid, Lisa. In the first act Tchatsky returns from abroad and makes his appearance at the house of his mistress, just as her father is lecturing her for her familiarity with Moltchaline. In the second act Sophia almost betrays herself by the feeling she exhibits when Moltchaline meets with an accident. A ball at the house of Famoussov occupies the greater part of the third act. Tchatsky takes the opportunity of making a number of disagreeable remarks, and on his departure a rumour is circulated that he has gone out of his mind. At the commencement of the fourth act he reappears, just as the guests are leaving the house of Famoussov. He goes into the porter's lodge to await the arrival of his carriage, and there overhears the complimentary remarks made about him. The last guests depart, and the household retire to rest. While Tchatsky is meditating in the hall Sophia makes her appearance, and he hides behind a pillar. At the same time Moltchaline comes forward with Lisa, and Sophia takes refuge behind another pillar. This is a convenient arrangement, and enables Sophia to detect Moltchaline, and Tchatsky to detect

her. A grand scene ensues. Moltchaline is put to flight, and Tchatsky departs after having vented his feelings in a glowing oration. We proceed to give some extracts from the dialogue, premising that the translation falls very considerably short of the original, inasmuch as Griboyedov wrote in verse, and the translator has been content with prose. The only Russian edition to which we have access at the present moment is that published by Bulgarin in 1854. In it no traces are to be found of many of the speeches that occur in the translation, and we must surmise that the play was cruelly mutilated by the censors in the course of its republication.

Here is a specimen of the reflections of Famoussov, who represents the Old Muscovite body:—

"Petrouska! bring the almanac: read it to me, with feeling and correct pauses. Stop! write on the blank page, opposite next week, 'I am invited to the house of Prascovia Feodorovna to dinner.' How marvellously this world is constituted! To-day you keep diet; to-morrow you go to a great dinner party. In three days you don't digest what you eat in three hours. Mark for Thursday, 'I am invited to a funeral'; what a generation! Here is an example to all who wish to leave the memory of an honourable life. The deceased was a worthy Chamberlain—with a key too—and contrived to leave it to his son. He was wealthy, and married a rich wife. He lived to see his children and grand-children married; he died, and everybody said, with deep sorrow, 'Poor Kouzma Petrovitch! Peace be to him!' What illustrious dignitaries live and die in Moscow!"

Tchatsky comes in talking about Famoussov's daughter.

"Famoussov. At one time you say that Sophia Paulovna is the handsomest girl in the world, and then that she is ill. Do you love her? Now that you have travelled over the world, do you intend to settle down as a married man?"

"Tchatsky. Why?"

"Famoussov. It would not be amiss to ask my advice, as I am in some sort a relation."

"Tchatsky. What answer would you give if I were to make a proposal."

"Famoussov. First, I would say, don't talk nonsense. Secondly, keep your private affairs in order, and above all enter the service."

"Tchatsky. Serve?—be obsequious? Never!"

"Famoussov. You young fellows are all proud alike. But you ought to ask how your fathers acted. It would be much better to learn from those who are older than yourselves—from me, for example, or my late uncle Maxim Petrovitch. His meals were served not only on silver but on gold plate, with a hundred persons in waiting. He was covered with decorations, and always drove a carriage-and-four. He passed his whole life at Court—and such a Court! How different from the present one! At that time all the courtiers weighed at least forty poods [15 cwt.] Even if you bowed to the earth, they never honoured you with a recognition. As for my uncle, he was worth a dozen princes. He had a serious and a haughty bearing, but in the presence of his superiors he could bend his body into a circle. Once at a great ball at the palace he slipped and fell so as nearly to break his neck. The old man groaned deeply, and was honoured with an imperial smile. The Empress deigned to laugh. What do you think he did? He rose, shook himself, made an effort to bow, and fell a second time, but intentionally. The laughter was continued. A third time he performed the same feat. What is your opinion of that? We found it clever, for he rose by his fall! On account of exploits of this kind, who was always invited to the imperial table, and favoured with the most gracious words? Maxim Petrovitch! Who was treated with most respect? Maxim Petrovitch! Who used to scatter ranks and pensions? Maxim Petrovitch!"

"*Tchatsky*. It is true! the world is becoming stupid! Were we to compare the past century with the present, it would be difficult to believe—fresh as might be the tradition that the man whose neck was most supple was all the rage—that the brazen front was of more use in peace than in war, for they used their foreheads most unmercifully by beating them against the earth! Poverty was allowed to lie in the dust without attracting any compassionate look, while flattery was weaving its network around the great. Now we find few amateurs ready to break their necks for the amusement of the public; and though there are always men prone to baseness, yet in our days the fear of ridicule deters them, and takes the place of honest shame.

"*Famoussov*. Good Lord! he is a Carbonaro!

"*Tchatsky*. No! Society has changed.

"*Famoussov*. He is a dangerous individual.

"*Tchatsky*. Everybody now breathes more freely, and is not in such haste to write himself down in the guild of buffoons.

"*Famoussov*. How he talks! And yet he talks well."

These extracts will be sufficient to show the nature of the piece. What is most to be admired in it, is the boldness of the author, whose freedom of speech, we might have thought, would have recommended him for a post in Siberia rather than in Persia. As for the translation, it is not without spirit, but Mr. Bernardaky has taken such liberties with the original, that he cannot plead the accuracy of his version as an excuse for having rendered poetry into prose.

The History of the Factory Movement, from the Year 1802 to the Enactment of the Ten Hours' Bill in 1847. By Alfred. 2 vols. Simpkin, Marshall, and Co.

THE resistance that was long and successfully offered to factory regulation is now scarcely credible. It was proved in evidence before the House of Commons that children under seven years of age were made to work sometimes for eighteen and commonly for thirteen hours out of the twenty-four. Medical men bore testimony to the deadly effects of thus overtasking the physical strength, while the clergy spoke of the moral evils that darkened the manufacturing districts. Mr. Oastler declared that it was no uncommon thing for the children to be cruelly beaten when tired with their work. He had seen a little child not more than ten years old with more than thirty wounds on the back, after a flogging for having spoiled a piece of yarn three inches long, the value of which there is no coin low enough to express. In one mill it was the usage, for any slight neglect, to load the children with weights, placed over their shoulders and hanging behind their backs. Some cases of peculiar atrocity at length led to the factories being subjected to inspection as a matter of police, but any attempt to interfere with the arrangements as to time of work was scouted as Quixotical. The real cause of opposition to the protection sought for the operatives was the covetousness of the manufacturers, many of whom were making vast fortunes by the system as it then worked. The ancient sacrifices of children to Moloch were not more horrible than those in modern times, and in a Christian country, to Mammon. The motive here was also less reputable, the heathen being moved by superstitious fear, but the "Christian" by sordid avarice. But the open avowal of the rights of capital over labour, and the defence of acquiring riches by the direct sacrifice of life, dared not be urged in Parliament. The manufacturers,

strong through their wealth and combination, rested their cause on the ground of political economy, one of the first principles of which, their advocates in the House affirmed, was non-interference with commercial arrangements. It was not till 1847 that the triumph of philanthropy over selfishness, and of practical statesmanship over theoretical political economy, was fully achieved in the passing of the Ten Hours' Bill. There are wrongs and abuses to rectify still in the factory system, but the passing of that Act was a memorable event in the annals of British legislation. It was memorable as a vast step towards the social improvement of the working classes, but of more importance as establishing a precedent for admitting other influences than mere calculations of commercial expediency in our laws and government. Abstractly, the principles of individual liberty, and free trade, and non-interference with private contracts, are all very well, but in practice the State must often interpose to check and regulate private transactions. It does so in all matters affecting the health, safety, and welfare of the community. There ought to be no interference with the operations of labour and capital in regard to "the wealth of nations" except when that is sought at the cost of higher objects. The protection of health and of morality gives ample ground for holding in abeyance the ordinary law of non-interference. Lord John Russell gave a clear statement of the principle on which such legislation is founded, in his speech the other day in opening the section on the amendment of the law, at the Birmingham Conference. "We hold nothing more sacred in this country than the right of parents to the disposal of their children in tender years, and of a man to the management of his own house,—that right, I mean, which is expressed in the axiom that 'every Englishman's house is his castle'; but of late years it was argued by a man whom I greatly honour, and whose absence I regret to-day—the Earl of Shaftesbury—that in certain kinds of manufacture you could not allow parents entirely to dispose of their children, that the work which the children endured was far too great, that it destroyed their strength and energy, and that it prevented them receiving any moral or religious education. This question was much argued in the House of Commons, and step by step greater interference was sanctioned, until at length it was said, 'If you go any further you will destroy one-fourth of the manufacturing industry of the country, so far as the textile manufactures of cotton, wool, and silk are concerned.' That legislation took place, however, and industry in those textile manufactures has, nevertheless, been increasing ever since. I have frequently asked, 'What have been the bad effects of that legislation?' and all that I could obtain from the strongest opponents of it was that it was quite wrong in principle, but that in practice it had been eminently successful. If it has been eminently successful in practice, however, there must be some error, I think, in supposing that it is altogether wrong in principle. I have said that an 'Englishman's house is his castle'; but Lord Shaftesbury argued that, though it was his castle, he was not to be allowed to shoot poisoned arrows into the community from the battlements of his castle. Yet that has been the case, both with regard to lodging-houses and to crowded dwellings in cities, which have been fruitful sources of injury to the health, morals, and religion of

the community. Then here I say is a subject on which you have hitherto had many wise saws telling you that it was against all principle to interfere, but with respect to which interference has been approved, and has been attended with beneficial results." A wise and good government is bound to protect the interests of the poor and the oppressed, who would otherwise be as much at the mercy of masters and capitalists, as the slaves of America are subject to their drivers and owners. In fact, to point to the condition of the factory operatives was ever the ready retort of slaveholders against this country. And a right-hearted Roman Catholic priest, after eight years' residence in Manchester, might well exclaim, "Ireland, with all thy poverty and all thy wrongs, rather than Manchester with all thy wealth—and thy factory system!"

We have fallen on better times. The whole tone of the factory system has of late years been elevated. At first the cries of the afflicted were taken up by a few generous advocates, who brought the subject before the nation. The press generally took the side of the operatives. It required an agitation of many long years to bring public opinion strongly to bear upon Parliament and the Government, but there has seldom been a cause which has enlisted so much talent, united to humanity and strengthened by a consciousness of right. Success was only a question of time, and the obstructions offered by grasping capitalists and by calculating economists, were sure to be ultimately removed. A writer, who modestly refrains from giving his name, but who both by his knowledge and right feeling is well qualified to do justice to the subject, has given a copious and connected narrative of the movement, from the first proposals in Parliament, by Mr. Sadler, to regulate factory labour, down to the passing of the Ten Hours' Bill under the auspices of Lord Ashley. The services of the Duke of Sussex, Lord Feverham, (to whom the work is dedicated,) Mr. Oastler, Mr. Stevens, Mr. Fielden, Lord Ellesmere, and others who laboured in the cause, are here duly honoured, and a full account given of the various steps in the movement, both in and out of Parliament. The direct services of literature and the press in bringing about the success of the movement are duly acknowledged:—

"It was by the agency of the press, that the insolence of wealth had been subdued, and the lust of avarice made ashamed. Every debate in parliament was a tolling of the knell of factory despotism, and a precursor of its fall; nobly as the newspaper press had done its duty, it was not alone;—the 'Quarterly Review,' 'Blackwood's Magazine,' 'Fraser's Magazine,' distinguished themselves by an unreserved condemnation of factory cruelties, and a defence of the necessity for regulation by law; the able writing in the pages of these representative and directory organs of public opinion was of inestimable value. The independent thinkers of the age were represented by Walter Landor, Robert Southey, and William Wordsworth, three stars in the literary hemisphere, which have shed more pure light below, than any other three we can name. Landor's 'Imaginary Conversation between Romilly and Willberforce,' is a complete digest of arguments in support of factory regulation. The striking delineation of, and reasoning upon, the evils of unregulated manufacturing industry, in the eighth and ninth books of Wordsworth's 'Excursion,' will retain its place in our literature. Southey's more diffuse expositions on the same subject have outlived much adverse criticism. There are others who have done good service.

"James Montgomery, of Sheffield, a poet whose verses have been sung by many factory children, was anxious for the passing of a Ten Hours' Bill; he was an early and a faithful supporter of the cause. Montgomery had a sympathy for the oppressed and helpless, wherever known; and, while anxious for the emancipation of the 'blacks,' did not forget, for a moment, the claims of the 'whites.' No poet, in the capacity of a citizen, ever more thoroughly reduced to practice the sentiments of humanity, as breathed forth by the inspiration of genius; his pity for the sufferings of the factory children was in keeping with the character of the man, and the spirit of the poet. Mrs. Trollope's novel, 'Michael Armstrong,' has been much abused; it has, however, been useful, and so, also, has been 'Helen Fleetwood,' by Charlotte Elizabeth. The press has been powerful for good in the progress of the factory movement, and none can acknowledge its services more heartily than have the factory operatives."

There are no laws of recent date on which the mind can rest with more satisfaction than those affecting factory regulations. The advantages, both physical and moral, are incalculable; the inconveniences predicted by theoretical economists have not been experienced; and an example has been set of legislation having regard to the welfare of the people as well as the wealth of the country.

History of the Consulate and the Empire.

By M. A. Thiers. Translated by John Stebbing, Esq. Willis and Sotheman.

THE discussion a few weeks since about the battle of Fuentes d'Onoro had an interest beyond the special point in dispute. Captain Brialmont's assertion that the British Light Division squares had been charged and broken by the French cavalry, brought forth a vehement denial from the historian of the Peninsular war. Sir W. Napier's statement was confirmed by eight or ten veterans of the Light Division, who were eye-witnesses of all the movements of that hard fought field. So conclusive was the evidence that Captain Brialmont, with a frankness most honourable to him as a soldier and an author, called on Sir William Napier, and acknowledged that he had been misinformed. The incident is gratifying as testing once more the unassailable authority of the great military historian. Nearly fifty years after the events narrated, there still survive many witnesses to attest the accuracy of the work. It is the more important to have such testimony before the author and all the actors in the scenes are removed, because a rival historian is now using all his eloquence and art to misrepresent many of the events of the war. The Fuentes d'Onoro discussion is but a sample of the matters at issue between the two historians. Sir W. Napier says, with regard to Captain Brialmont's error, that "he has been misled by M. Thiers, whose historical falsifications as to the British troops in the Peninsular war require no other notice than that they are contemptible falsifications; they refute themselves."

A Napier is privileged to use strong language, and in the case of M. Thiers there is good cause for his violence of denunciation. The literary excellence of his work on the French Empire gives currency to his perversions of history. It is only a soldier or other eye-witnesses of the scenes who can give "the lie direct," as Napier does when he speaks of "contemptible falsifications;" but any reader of M. Thiers can see that he has the art of conveying false impressions even

when not actually writing untruths. We have a striking illustration of this in the account of the memorable battle of Salamanca. This has always been acknowledged to be one of the most brilliant victories ever won. A French officer at the time described it as the "beating of forty thousand men in forty minutes." Never was a success so entirely due to superior generalship. But now contrast the account of the decisive crisis of the battle as given by the two historians, and the tone of their reflections on the movement which secured the victory. Thus it is told by Napier:—

"Marmont's first arrangements had occupied several hours without giving positive indication of his designs, and Wellington, ceasing to watch him, had retired from the Hermanito, and was lying down when, about three o'clock, a report came that the French left was rapidly pointing towards the Ciudad Rodrigo road. Starting up he repaired to the high ground and observed their movements for some time with a stern contentment, for their left wing was then entirely separated from the centre; the fault was flagrant, and he fixed it with the stroke of a thunder-bolt. A few orders issued from his lips like the incantations of a wizard, and suddenly the dark mass of troops which covered the English Hermanito seemed agitated by some mighty spirit; rushing violently down the interior slope of the mountain they entered the great basin amidst a storm of bullets which appeared to shear away the whole surface of the earth over which they were moving."

"Marmont from the French Hermanito saw the country beneath him suddenly covered with enemies when he was in the act of making a complicated evolution, and when by the rash advance of his left his troops were separated into three parts, each at too great a distance to assist the other, and those nearest the enemy neither strong enough to hold their ground nor knowing what they had to encounter. The third division was however still hidden from him by the western heights, and he hoped the tempest of bullets under which the British line was moving in the basin beneath would check it until he could bring up his reserve divisions, and assail by the Arapiles village and the English Hermanito. But this his only resource was weak; the village was well disputed, the English Hermanito offered a strong bastion of defence, and behind it stood the reserve, twelve thousand strong with thirty guns. In this crisis, despatching officer after officer to hasten up his troops from the forest, others to stop the progress of his left wing, he with fierce and sanguine expectation still looked for victory until he saw Pakenham with the third division shoot like a meteor across Maucune's path; then pride and hope alike died within him, and desperately he was hurrying in person to that fatal point when an exploding shell stretched him on the earth with a broken arm and two deep wounds in his side—confusion ensued, and his troops, distracted by ill-judged orders and counter-orders, knew not where to move, who to fight, or who to avoid."

M. Thiers represents the whole affair as the result of unlucky accidents, and while it is impossible to conceal the completeness of the victory, he strives to detract from the glory of the victor:—

"Such was this unfortunate and involuntary battle, known as the battle of Salamanca or Arapiles, the result of which was to the English army an unhoped-for victory in the place of an inevitable retreat, and to us the commencement of the ruin of our affairs in Spain. And this result, without attempting to deny the merits of Lord Wellington, we must certainly attribute in great part to his good fortune, for it was out of all proportion to the merits of the English General or the errors of our own. To be unexpectedly engaged in a battle, to have three commanders-in-chief wounded in succession, and to be involved in extraordinary confusion, after a march which had been continued

for many days with the greatest success, and in the best order, were severe, and we may say undeserved blows. But this battle is an eminent proof that the moral effect of events in war is generally far superior to their material effect; for if we had generals killed and wounded in this engagement, the English on their side suffered a similar loss; if the number of our killed and wounded amounted to five or six thousand, almost as many had fallen on the side of the enemy; and, in short, although we had certainly lost nine pieces of cannon, which, having been drawn from the heights down into the plain, had there lost their horses and could not be carried off, the difference between the material results of the battle to either side was very inconsiderable. By its moral effects, however, the position of the two forces was completely changed. We had no longer any chance of being able to force the English to retreat, and were, on the contrary, ourselves compelled to make a retrograde movement, with an army in the highest degree irritated by its long series of misfortunes, from which neither its incomparable bravery, nor resignation to the cruellest sufferings had preserved it. And now, whilst Marmont was compelled to withdraw behind the Douro, or even to a greater distance, as one of the first steps necessary in attempting to restore confidence to his army, Lord Wellington, on the contrary, was henceforth able to carry on the campaign in Castile, and on the French rear, for there was nowhere any force capable of making head against him. The army of Portugal would be compelled to fall back before him till it came up with the army of the north; the army of the centre was far too feeble to dare to approach him; the army of Andalusia was at a distance; and he was, therefore, at liberty to determine whether he should pursue General Clausel, or throw himself upon Madrid and enter it as a conqueror. Such were the ill consequences resulting from the want of goodwill on the part of those who had neglected to reinforce the army of Portugal in time, and of the imprudence of those who had engaged in a useless battle."

"Ah! pauvre Marmont, te voila perdu!" such was the exclamation which is said to have gaily burst forth from Wellington when his eagle eye saw the blunder of the French General, of which he took advantage. After hours of marching and countermarching, Wellington seized the moment which gave him victory. The French army was surprised in the midst of an evolution, and defeat was the consequence of advantage being taken of the false movement. Who could discover this from the rhetorical narrative of M. Thiers? This is but an example of the "falsification" with which his history abounds.

One word as to Mr. Stebbing's translation of the work of M. Thiers. Literal it may be called, but any schoolboy might be ashamed of such a dictionary performance. On the very first page of the volume before us we have this clumsy and intricate sentence:—

"And if, instead of attempting to vanquish Europe at the bottom of Russia, Napoleon had persevered in combating it on the theatre, difficult, indeed, but selected by himself on the Peninsula and the Atlantic, he would probably have compelled England to yield, and at the same time have disarmed the whole of Europe, at least for many years, and would thus have obtained time, more judicious views having taken possession of his mind, to make such sacrifices as his greatness would have allowed him to make with the utmost safety, and would have rendered his government endurable by rendering it supportable."

Not only is there displayed an utter ignorance of the idioms of the language, but the most common phrases are blundered, as where Mr. Stebbing tells how Napoleon was vanquished "at the bottom of Russia," *au fond de la Russie!*

PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED.

The Accession of Nicholas I. Compiled by Special Command of the Emperor Alexander II. By H.L.M. Secretary of State, Baron M. Korff, and Translated from the Original Russian. Murray.

Husson; or, the Child of the Pyramids: an Egyptian Tale. By the Hon. C. A. Murray, C.B. John W. Parker and Son.

The History of the Factory Movement from the Year 1802 to the Enactment of the Ten Hours' Bill in 1847. By Alfred. 2 vols. Simpkin and Co.

The Rebellion in India; how to Prevent Another. By John Bruce Norton. Richardson Brothers.

Court Secrets: a Novel. By Mrs. Thomson. 3 vols. Hurst and Blackett.

Bible Manual; an Introduction to the Study of Scripture History, with Analyses of the Books of the Bible. By James Sime, M.A. Edinburgh: Sutherland and Knox. Sermons. By Edward Stokes, M.A. T. Hatchard.

The Sheepfold and the Common; or, Within and Without. Vol. I. Blackie and Son.

A Woman's Preachings for Woman's Practice. By Augusta Johnstone. Groombridge and Sons.

The Australian Sacred Lyre. By James Sinclair. Melbourne: J. N. Sayers.

MR. NORTON'S Volume on the Rebellion in India has not been written with sole reference to the present outbreak, though advantage is taken of it in the title, and in the time of publication. The book consists of a whole budget of miscellaneous statements, arguments, complaints, and charges, relative to the mal-administration and mismanagement of Indian affairs. There is a great deal of truth in what is said about the evils attending the double system of government, and truth also in many of the particular grievances described, but Mr. Norton writes in a spirit of such violent and even vulgar rancour against the East India Company, that he often overshoots his mark, and leaves an impression very different from what he probably intended to convey. For instance, speaking of the gallant Sir James Outram, he describes him as "the hectoring champion of the despoiled Ameers of Scinde," and as "doing the dirty work of the Company with the most cheerful alacrity." With regard to the kingdom of which Lucknow is the capital, we are told that "Lord Dalhousie appears to have been uncommonly anxious to complete the spoliation of Oude personally before the arrival of his successor," as if it were a step taken *proprio motu*, and not deliberately resolved upon after years of long-suffering patience, and reiterated warnings of the consequences of that territory being misgoverned, and made a source of disquiet and trouble to the empire. In one place Mr. Norton sneers at the Indian Government as a mere non-entity, "an administration of affairs, feeble almost to inanition," and on the same page he says, "in India we are still theoretically and practically a despotism," adding, in a foot-note, "we are positively retrograding. We have buried the freedom of the press." As we have already admitted, there is matter that is true and important in Mr. Norton's book, but there is also much that is unfounded and unjustifiable, and his statements must be received with caution, and carefully sifted. And the defence of the native powers is carried to an absurd length, when Mr. Norton argues against the annexation of States where the natural heirs are extinct, because the system of adopting heirs is the common usage of India. "If a man," he says, "has no son his religion compels him to adopt one, since it is only through the ceremonies and offerings of the son that the soul of the father can be released from Put, which seems to be the heathen Purgatory." A pretty reason for allowing any villain, named by the last of a ruling race, to assume sovereignty! The usage of adoption may be tolerated in regard to private property, but not in regard to public authority and dominion. Besides, these reigning families are for the most part the descendants of men who seized the territories with far less shadow of claim than the Company now can show. They may be thankful that they are suffered to retain their territories and revenues till their family by lawful descent is extinct, and it is too much to expect to be allowed to nominate adopted successors to their power. With far greater show of

justice our British peers might claim to name successors to their privileges, after the line of hereditary succession is extinct. Mr. Norton says that we have no more title to interfere with an Indian Rajah, on account of a disreputable life or a state of debt, than we have to meddle with any Marquis of Steyne in this country. The cases are not parallel. It is only when the misconduct or the circumstances of an Indian Rajah affect public interests that any interference is attempted. Mr. Norton has to acknowledge that "the great bulk of the people, the ryots and cultivators of the soil, are better off under our government than any of its predecessors. Our policy is all in their favour." We have released them from the oppression of their native rulers; we have striven to educate them and to benefit them in every way; and the British Government, having this good work in hand, must not be hindered in the mission assigned to it by Providence, by the reclamations of advocates retained by native princes and zemindars with money extorted from the labour and industry of the native population.

Mrs. Thomson is a ready writer of novels, not of a class that retain a permanent place in literature, but which will take their turn in the circulating library. The Court, the secrets of which supply the subject of the present tale, is one of the little German Principalities, and some of the sketches and incidents illustrate well the life and manners of the Continental English in such a region. We must leave the reader to form an independent opinion of the novel, merely offering a protest against some of the gross exaggerations of character. For instance, the English chaplain, Mr. Boase, is made a most contemptible character, which the author is at perfect liberty to do, but not to represent him as a type of the order. She says, "No one knew why he came there or where he came from. No one ever knows where a Continental clergyman comes from. They are men of the past and of the future. Seldom do they talk of the past. Let it be so. Let there be a spot, not penal but purgatorial, where the outcasts of the church may have a chance of reclaiming and retrieving on one side of the Channel, errors committed on the other. Those who voluntarily quit their own firesides in England, must lay their account with finding the company they meet as well as the coin they pass considerably deteriorated from that which they have left behind." Now this, we have no hesitation in saying, is a gross libel on a class of men excellent and useful as a body, and a libel too on the authorities of the church at home, to whom they are still subject. Mrs. Thomson should believe that there are other motives that can draw a Christian minister from an English fireside besides the unworthy ones which she alone suggests as accounting for their exercising their ministry in a foreign country. The remarks on the spirit of scandal and gossip in English settlements on the Continent are more just, though these are applicable rather to a bygone period than to our own time, when the increase of communication has broken up the old forms and circles of social life in foreign countries. Some of the scenes are graphic and entertaining, and could only have been written by one who had witnessed or been accurately informed of what takes place in society in an English Continental settlement.

As a help to the intelligent study of the Sacred Scriptures, so far as human knowledge and critical learning can illustrate their meaning, the Bible Manual of Mr. Sime will be found extremely useful. It gives analyses of the several books of the Bible, with expository and explanatory notes on points of doctrine, precepts, history, customs and institutions, chronology, and other subjects. An appendix contains a record of the chief events that took place during the interval between the closing of the canon of the Old and the opening of that of the New Testament.

The Sheepfold and the Common is a new title given to an old work, now republished, after careful revision, which originally appeared under the name of 'The Evangelical Rambler.' It consists

of a series of religious tales, sketches, dialogues, arguments, and miscellanies, in which the great truths of Christianity, both in their principles and practice, are illustrated and enforced. Some of the subjects have a close relation to passing events, and the writer shows considerable knowledge of the history of missionary efforts in India, the machinations of the Papacy in Europe, and other movements that have been more fully developed since his work first appeared. Other forms of error opposed to Evangelical truth have also sprung up during the same interval. The author, referring to the school of which Maurice, Hare, Trench, and Kingsley are the leaders, says, "We have a new set of philosophers coming up within our own borders, men of learning and taste, and of Oxford and Cambridge training, who have recently discovered that Christianity is not, as hitherto believed by our great theological authorities, a remedial scheme of grace and truth, to recover man from the ruins of the fall, but a mere educational scheme, to develop his inner spiritual life, and to train it to a state of perfection." This is scarcely a fair statement of the scheme, which does not present the Christian system merely as educational, though some may think it explains away its distinctive features, as a plan of atonement, which are considered orthodox according to the Articles of the Church of England, and the creeds and confessions of all Christian churches. On discussions of this nature the author takes the "orthodox" side with ability and moderation, but the style is diffuse, and the work is not likely to be read by those whose errors it seeks to refute. A book of about six hundred pages is a formidable object to attack in these busy times, and this is only volume the first of the Evangelical Rambler; or, the Sheepfold and the Common! Thirty years ago, the taste of the religious public may have welcomed such treatises, but we suspect that now-a-days they are as much out of date as the eight-volume novels of Richardson, or the disquisitions of Hannah More. However, the sale will test public opinion on this point, and we shall rejoice if a book so excellent in its objects is widely circulated and read.

A woman humble, patient, and docile enough to listen to another woman's "preachings" on common things, is a phenomenon not often to be met with. Young girls under governesses, or daughters subject to maternal authority, or the pupils of charity schools, may be induced or compelled to attend to formal and didactic discourses on character and behaviour; but not many women of any class of life will give heed to advice or instruction on such matters. It is only through the indirect mode of a novel or a play that good counsel on the lesser moralities and the common virtues and duties of life can reach female ears, for the pulpit is too generally mute on practical topics of the kind. But for those willing to be taught, and counselled, and warned, the lectures by Augusta Johnstone on woman's conduct in various phases of life deserve to be attentively perused. Occupation *versus* idleness, punctuality, amusements, economy, temper, dress, gossip, coquetry, *confidantes*, debt, jealousy, bluestockingism, modern reading, female authorship, and a number of other subjects, are discussed in a plain and familiar style, in a series of lectures or letters. As we already have hinted, we doubt whether these will be much read or appreciated by the class for whom they were primarily intended; but they may be useful to young women, into whose hands they ought to be put, and we can testify that they contain interesting matter to readers of the male sex. Mrs. Johnstone has no sympathy with the "rights of woman" agitation as carried across the Atlantic. "I do not believe that the movements made during the last few years, by the American women, are at all in the right direction. Nature, in giving you a distinct physical organization, clearly enough indicated different pursuits and habits from beings of the masculine gender; and why the sex, indisputably the weaker, in a physical point of view, whatever may be the light in which their mental capacities are seen, should

be emulous of filling learned professions, is a question, which, in the contemplation of common sense, borders too strongly on the ridiculous, to admit of serious discussion."

New Editions.

The Wonders of Geology; or, a Familiar Exposition of Geological Phenomena. By Gideon Algernon Mantell, LL.D., F.R.S. Seventh Edition. Revised and Augmented by T. Rupert Jones, F.G.S. Vol. I. H. G. Bohn.

Memoirs of the Court of England during the Reign of the Stuarts, including the Protectorate. By John Henneage Jesse. New Edition. Vol. III. H. G. Bohn.

History of the Fall of the Old Fort of Calcutta, and the Calamity of the Black Hole. By D. L. Richardson. Second Edition. Calcutta: 'Gazette' Office.

The World in Which we Live, and My Place in It. By E. S. A. Edited by the Rev. John H. Broome. A New Edition. Wertheim and Macintosh.

Father Estuac: a Tale of the Jesuits. By Mrs. Trollope.

DR. MANTELL'S 'Wonders of Geology' will long retain its place as one of the most attractive expositions of the science. It presents an excellent popular summary of the philosophy of geological facts and phenomena, while in his other work, 'The Medals of Creation,' is given a compendious view of the principles of paleontology, or the knowledge of fossil remains. The seventh edition of the 'Wonders of Geology,' to form two volumes of Bohn's Scientific Library, is revised and augmented by T. Rupert Jones, F.G.S. Dr. Mantell's book had for its groundwork a course of lectures delivered at Brighton above twenty years ago, and the rapid progress of geological science since that date rendered alterations necessary in many parts of the work for successive editions. This being the case, there is less apology required, and less censure incurred, when it is stated that Mr. Jones has made "considerable modifications in this edition, so that the most important recent discoveries in paleontology, and the new or modified views of geological phenomena resulting from the progress of knowledge, might be incorporated in their respective lectures." A biographical memoir of Dr. Mantell is prefixed, of which the obituary notice by Mr. Hopkins, of Cambridge, read in 1853 before the Geological Society in his anniversary address, forms the principal part. Professor Silliman, of Yale College, America, published a lucid and genial notice of his friend Dr. Mantell's life and labours in the 'American Journal of Science and Art,' which is included in this biographical memoir. Professor Silliman's introduction to the American edition of the 'Wonders of Geology' is also prefixed to this edition, which is profusely illustrated, and presents the work by which Dr. Mantell's name will be most distinguished in the literature of science, in a form likely to extend and perpetuate its popularity. The notes and references appended by Mr. Jones are creditable to his editorial industry and scientific information, and draw the reader's attention to the most recent discoveries and researches of geologists.

Volume the third of the *Memoirs of the Court of England during the Reign of the Stuarts and the Protectorate*, by John Henneage Jesse, completes the re-issue of the work in Bohn's Historical Library. This volume contains memoirs of Catherine of Braganza, Queen of Charles II., Prince Rupert, George Monk, Duke of Albemarle, George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, the Duke of Monmouth, Hortensia Mancini, Duchess of Mazarin, Frances Stewart, Duchess of Richmond, Frances Jennings, Duchess of Tyrconnel, Charles Sackville, Earl of Dorset, John Wilmot, Earl of Rochester, Henry Jermyn, Lord Dover, the Countess of Chesterfield, the Countess of Grammont, Lady Bellasye, Lady Denham, Thomas Killigrew, Henry Brouncker, Thomas Thynne, Lucy Waters, Nell Gwynne, Moll Davis, Mrs. Middleton, James II., Anne Hyde, Duchess of York, Mary of Modena, Catherine Sedley, Arabella Churchill, and many others of lesser mark and notoriety in the reigns of the last two Stuarts. Portraits of many of these celebrated personages illustrate the work. We have reperused several of the memoirs, in connexion with the portraits which formed so conspicuous and interesting a portion of the Art Treasures Exhibition at Manchester, and have

found exactly the kind of information which one would desire when these historical relics have been recalled to our notice. Mr. Jesse's work contains many biographical and traditional details which are not introduced into formal histories, but which contribute to forming a vivid and truthful idea of the epoch of the Stuarts, and of the court notables of those times.

With the terrible tragedy of the Black Hole of Calcutta, that of the Cawnpore slaughter-house will hold a like place of dark celebrity in the history of British India. Little could any Englishman have anticipated that the cruelty of Siraj-ood-Dowla in the eighteenth century, could have been surpassed by the cool atrocity of Nana Saib in the nineteenth. Last year, on the 20th June, the anniversary of the day of the Black Hole tragedy, a narrative of the well-known event appeared in the columns of the *Hurkaru* newspaper of Calcutta. It was reprinted, and a second edition demanded. The writer concludes with some reflections on the altered position of the British since the date of the event which he recalled to memory. "When the old fort was besieged our whole army consisted of but a few hundred British troops, and a very few thousand sepoys. We have now an army of upwards of three hundred thousand men, British and Native." Other points of contrast are enumerated in a tone of complacent triumph. How soon have all these bright views been clouded! Historians in after times will have episodes to narrate in Indian annals surpassing in horror even the tragedy of the Black Hole of Calcutta. To us, at this distance of time, and when the mind is not harrowed by sorrow for the recently living, the old tale has a veil of romance thrown over its horror, and we have read with interest this narrative, written in Calcutta in the centenary year of the tragedy. An engraving of the monument erected in commemoration of the event is prefixed to the narrative.

A more compact, comprehensive, and useful manual of universal history, for juvenile pupils, we have not met with than that now republished under the title of *The World in which I Live and my Place in It*. The chronological lists and tables have been compiled from the best authorities, and the narrative part of the work is in a style adapted for young readers. The editor has throughout kept in view that the study of history is of greater importance for the inculcation of principles than for the mere acquisition of facts. The Romish Church, alive to this fact, never suffers the children of her communion to read any histories that are not approved by the authorities. It has been proved that some of the historical manuals in common use in this country have been cunningly altered in recent editions so as to convey pernicious teaching. The whole story of the Reformation, for instance, and of our civil war, is perverted and falsified. It is therefore advisable that all historical books should be carefully examined before being used in schools or families. Even those which bear familiar and well-known names of authors have been sometimes poisoned by corrupt interpolations, since the commencement of the conspiracy against Protestantism of which the Oxford Tractarianism was one of the developments. The *Manual of Universal History*, by E. S. A., edited by the Rev. John H. Broome, and dedicated by permission to Lord Cholmondeley, is one in which the interests of the Christian religion and of Protestantism have due prominence, while fair and impartial accounts are given of all the great facts and movements of history in the successive ages of the world.

Miscellaneous, Pamphlets, &c.

The Sepoy Mutinies, their Origin and their Cure. By an Old Servant of the East India Company. Wertheim and Macintosh.

Letter to Lord Viscount Palmerston on Medical Reform. By John G. M. Burt. Blackwood and Sons.

A New Financial Scheme. By Alexander Platt. J. Ridgway.

An Address to Soldiers under Orders for Active Service. By Lenora C. Prince. T. Hatchard.

ONE of the very best publications that have been elicited by the Indian insurrection is a brief pam-

phlet of about twenty pages, by an old servant of the Hon. East India Company. Mr. Sinclair, on retiring some years ago from military service in the East, published 'A Brief Inquiry into the State and Prospects of India;' a work which attracted considerable notice, and which is continually referred to by Sir Archibald Alison, in the chapter on India, included in his 'History of the French Revolution.' Other published statements by Mr. Sinclair, who is now in the English church, have been quoted by high authorities with approval, and as he has attended much to the subject since his retirement, and been in communication with official personages, his views of the present state of affairs deserve to be received with deference. As to the immediate causes of the outbreak, Mr. Sinclair commences by pointing out the mistakes and blunders which made a mutiny possible. The composition of the Bengal army, with its predominance of high caste Hindus, Brahmans, and Rajpoots, with many Mahomedans; the tendency to centralization in military affairs, insufficient power being left with commanding officers, and too much power transferred to the Adjutant-General's department; reduction of the number of European troops in proportion to the territory to be occupied; removal of military officers to staff and civil appointments; the education of the natives according to a system destructive of their superstitious creed, but without communicating the knowledge of Christianity; and lastly, the mismanagement of the unfortunate business of the cartridges—all these points are successively discussed. Then the writer offers suggestions as to future policy, chiefly under the following heads:—The European troops, both in Queen's and Company's service, should be permanently increased. 2. As a reward to the fidelity of the Madras and Bombay armies, let certain military stations in Central and Western India, now belonging to Bengal, be transferred to the lesser presidencies, providing for an addition of four or five regiments of horse and foot, with proportionate promotions to each presidency. 3. In reorganizing the Bengal army, let no respect be paid to caste. There will then be no need to introduce Caffres, or West Indians, or other foreign troops, as has been proposed. 4. Let the artillery be entirely European; and no native troops initiated into the secrets of the military laboratories and arsenals. 5. Restore power to commanding officers to punish misconduct and reward good conduct, without the formalities of red-tapeism. Let the choice of commanding officers be first good, and then trust them, till proved to act improperly. 6. Let invalid and provincial battalions be multiplied, and officered not by captains and lieutenants taken from their own regiments, but by officers willing to leave the regular army and be permanently attached to these irregular corps. 7. Regimental officers ought not to be withdrawn to civil duties, or, if they are, they ought to remain civilians. 8. Knowledge of the language of the soldiers ought to be compulsory as a step to any lieutenant being promoted to a troop or company. 9. Abolish the liberty of the native press. When Mr. Munro, brother of Sir Thomas Munro, heard of the proposal to introduce a free press, he exclaimed, "A free press in India! A free press in a 74!" India must long be ruled with a strong hand for the good of the people. 10. The railway system ought to be vigorously pushed on, for military as well as commercial purposes. With a strong military station on the Afghan frontier, all idea of a Russian invasion would vanish, and the whole resources of the Indian empire could then be concentrated readily. 11. The colonization of India ought to be encouraged, instead of the settlement of independent merchants being looked on with jealousy by the Company. Lastly, by diffusing sound education, and protecting, though not directly engaging in, missionary efforts, the Government ought to seek the improvement of the people of all creeds and classes. Mr. Sinclair had prepared a statement of his views on all these matters for the columns of the daily press, but his materials grew to a size rendering separate publication advisable. Few have written on the subject

with more soundness and temperance, and we join in the author's concluding hope, that neither in or out of Parliament, at home or in the East, opportunity may be taken for party conflict, sectarian triumph, or oratorical display, in the discussing of measures upon which depend not only the honour and interest of Great Britain, but the welfare, temporal and spiritual, for generations to come, of nearly two hundred millions of souls.

A short and sensible letter on the subject of Medical Reform is addressed to Lord Palmerston, by Dr. John G. M. Burt, a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians of Edinburgh. Dr. Burt attributes the difficulties that have for forty years obstructed legislation on this question to the jealousies and conflicting interests of existing medical corporations. The Universities and Colleges are afraid of losing the fees and patronage now possessed by them, and in all the discussions about legislative enactments, the interests of certain medical corporations, and not of the profession at large, or of the general public, are chiefly brought under consideration. Coming forward without bias toward any institution, and without being committed to any side in the controversies that have hitherto taken place, but simply as an *amici curiæ*, and an independent member of the profession, Dr. Burt counsels Lord Palmerston to act for the public benefit, without being longer controlled by the selfish views of medical corporations. He urges that a Board or Council should be formed, to determine the minimum qualification requisite for engaging in the practice of the profession. The existing medical bodies may be left to provide the education, and with privileges to grant honours and degrees, but general practitioners ought not to be compelled to belong to colleges or other corporations. A sufficient qualification duly attested, and an official list of qualified practitioners, are the only legitimate objects which the Government Medical Board ought to be charged with. Dr. Burt suggests that each of the Colleges of Physicians and Surgeons of the three kingdoms might nominate two licentiates, from each of which the Secretary of State might select two; and with the six so selected, a non-professional member of each House of Parliament might be chosen by the Queen to constitute the Board, thus securing its responsibility to the legislature and the country. Whatever may be thought of Dr. Burt's suggestions in detail, we have no doubt he is right in advising the Government to act with vigour and independence, and not wait for any approach to unanimity among the members of the profession. If it be necessary to pension a few examiners and others, whose pecuniary interests may be affected, as has been done with the proctors, the money for this purpose would be spent for the public good.

Mr. Platt's Financial Scheme has novelty at least, though it is difficult to see any other feature to recommend it. He proposes that Government offices should be established under the name of auxiliary revenue offices, at any of which, as at a bank, a person might deposit money, specifying the number of days for which he is willing to leave it, which sum of money should be returnable to him, together with a large interest, on condition of his making his personal appearance at the office every day within the corresponding hours, until the specified time should have elapsed, the penalty of non-appearance being the forfeiture of the sum deposited. Mr. Platt thinks that all the various causes which might induce non-appearance, including accidents, sickness, forgetfulness, and death, are so many impalpable elements which might be converted into cash for the benefit of the state. The productiveness of these contingencies he thinks would be very great, and there would be a large surplus left in the offices by confiscation, after paying the principal and interest to depositors who made their personal appearance regularly. It is absurd to imagine that many depositors would be found on these terms, even at the most tempting rate of interest. Not many would forget to appear at the regular hour, and few would deposit who had chance of being prevented going by circumstances

not under their own power. Mr. Platt's plan supposes a patriotic credulity, a verdant innocence, and a clockwork punctuality quite unobtainable in these days of selfishness, competition, and perpetual mutation. The confiscations, we suspect, would barely pay for the expenses of the auxiliary revenue offices.

The Address to Soldiers under Orders for Active Service, by Leonora C. Prince, contains pious counsels and kind hints expressed in simple scriptural language. It is intended to devote any profits that may arise from the publication for the benefit of the wives and children of soldiers. Our troops were never engaged in a service commanding the warm sympathy of the women of England so much as that to which they are now called in India, and this tract is evidently an expression of this feeling.

List of New Books.

- Accession of Nicholas L. 8vo, cloth, 10s. 6d.
 Acton on Prostitution, 8vo, cloth, 10s. 6d.
 Alexander's (J.A.) Acts of the Apostles, 2 vols., post 8vo, cl., 15s.
 Armstrong's (J.) Sermons on the Festivals, fcp. svo, cl., 5s.
 Bacon (F.) of Verulam, by K. Fischer, post 8vo, cl., 9s. 6d.
 Bird's (Dr. G.) Urinary Deposits, 3d ed., svo, cl., 10s. 6d.
 Bow (The) in the Cloud, fcp. svo, cl., 2s. 6d.
 Courtenay's (Rev. Dr.) Future State, svo, cl., 6s.
 Cumming's (Dr.) Joshua, 8c., 12mo, cl., 6s.
 Days and Seasons, 18mo, cl., 2s. 6d.; morocco, 5s.
 Delamont's Photography, 2nd ed., post 8vo, cl., 4s. 6d.
 Dumas' Chicot the Jester, 12mo, bds, 2s.; cl., 2s. 6d.
 Encyclopedia Britannica, 4to, cl., Vol. XIV., £1 4s.
 Fellow's (H.B.) Gun and Dog, 12mo, cl., 2s. 6d.
 Ferguson's (W.) Practical Surgery, 4th ed., fcp., cl., 12s. 6d.
 Gore's (Mrs.) Woman of the World, 12mo, bds., 2s.
 Hall's (Mrs. S.C.) Lucky Penny, 12mo, bds., 2s.; cl., 2s. 6d.
 Hare's (W.R.) Search for a Dinner, 12mo, cl., 2s. 6d.
 Hingston's (F.) Poems, edited by His Son, post 8vo, cl., 10s. 6d.
 Horsley's (G.) Probate and Administration Act, 1857, 12mo, 6s.
 Howard (H.E.) on Numbers and Deuteronomy, cr. svo, 10s. 6d.
 Loucfellow's (H.W.) Voices of the Night, small 4to, cl., 7s. 6d.
 Mabel Vaughan, 12mo, bds., new rd., 1s. 6d.
 Mahony's (J.) Book of the Baiter, svo, cl., 5s.
 Methune's Memoir, post 8vo, cl., 5s.
 Murray's (Hon. C.) Hassan, 2 vols., post 8vo, cl., £1 1s.
 Newton's (J.) Cardiphonia, fcp., cl., 3s.
 Parables of Our Lord, by Two Sisters, 12mo, cl., 3s.
 Phillips (J.A.) and Darlington's (J.) Records of Mining, cl., 6s.
 Robinson's (J.B.) Circulation of the Blood, post 8vo, cl., 6s.
 Sargent's (L.) Economy of the Working Classes, svo, cl., 9s.
 Scott's (Lady) Marriage in High Life, 12mo, bds., 1s. 6d.; cl., 2s.
 Sims's (J.) Bible Manual, cr. svo, cl., 4s. 6d.
 Smith's (Rev. T.D.) Life, post 8vo, cl., 6s.
 Spurgeon's (C.H.) Salut and His Saviour, 12mo, cl., 6s.
 Stokes' (Rev. E.) Sermons, fcp. svo, cl., 5s. 6d.
 Thomson's (Mrs.) Court secrets, 3 vols., post 8vo, cl., £1 11s. 6d.
 Whitehead's (J.) Hereditary Disease, 2nd ed., svo, cl., 10s. 6d.

ARTICLES AND COMMUNICATIONS.

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE PROMOTION OF SOCIAL SCIENCE.

THE Conference that has this week been held at Birmingham commands attention, not only from the nature of the proceedings, but as an expression of the spirit and tendency of the age in which we live. It is only in recent times that questions affecting social progress and the improvement of the condition of the people have received adequate and systematic consideration. Philanthropists and social reformers have laboured successfully in special fields of benevolence, and associations have been formed for carrying out particular objects, either by voluntary efforts, or by bringing influence to bear on the legislature. The improvement in the condition of our prisons through the labours of John Howard may be named as a noble instance of the results of individual philanthropy, and the influence of associated zeal has been exemplified in the measures passed by Parliament through the recommendation of the Society for the Amendment of the Law. In regard to the education of the people, the amelioration of the condition of the working classes, the regulation of labour in factories and mines, and the guardianship of public health, great advancement has been made since the commencement of the present reign. The complaint that has been often made with respect to history, that it dealt little with the real state or progress of nations, but only with public and political events, might with equal justice apply to legislation. It is now far otherwise. The internal condition of the nation receives due attention, and social questions share with political the discussions and enactments of Parliament. The time, therefore, seemed to have arrived for establishing some systematic and central organization for combining,

consolidating, and directing public opinion on subjects of social interest. In the physical sciences, those who cultivate separate departments have found the advantage of an analogous combination, and the success of the British Association has suggested a similar organization. A general conference is to be held annually, and the members will divide themselves into sections, according to the subjects in which they take greatest interest. Papers will be read, followed by conversations or discussions; and even though no immediate or practical results are possible, there must be an addition to the great moving power in a constitutional and free country,—the influence of Public Opinion. It is by this mode of operation that we chiefly expect the Birmingham meeting, and those hereafter to be held in other towns, to exert a powerful influence. If any doubts remain as to the utility of the scheme, it is from the vast range of subjects included in the scope of the Association. In fact, with the exception of the purely physical sciences, and topics of foreign policy, there is scarcely a department of inquiry that cannot be brought within the limit of social philosophy. From the codification of the laws of England down to the deodorization of the Thames sewage, from the education of the people down to the process for the recovery of small debts, the range of choice is boundless. The papers read at Birmingham have presented a wide diversity of topics. We have no intention of referring to any of the questions in detail, as the reports in the daily journals have been ample, and excepting in the educational section, few of the discussions have had any direct bearing upon the interests of science, art, or literature. The proceedings in the sections we must say, however, did not come up to the high standard which the eloquent inaugural address of Lord Brougham might have led us to anticipate. In describing the objects of social science, and the dignity of its pursuits, Lord Brougham said that "For cultivating this branch of science, there are manifest and peculiar facilities. The facts on which it rests are more plain and tangible than those which form the ground of moral philosophy in its other departments. They are more obvious; they are in most cases perceptible to the senses; they are reducible to measure and calculation. The accumulation and distribution of public wealth; the prosperity or suffering of the people; the quiet or the disturbed state of the country; the diffusion of knowledge by education; the moral improvement of different classes; the action of the law and its administration upon the habits of the community; the benefits which may result from individual exertions unconnected with the State; the increased efficiency of such exertions when made by bodies of men; the just limits of public interference with private concerns, whether for management or repression; the duty of the State in respect to undertaking works beyond the power of individual enterprise, and the limits of those duties; the right and expediency of public interference with the authority or the conduct of parents—these are matters of distinct observation, and are so connected with facts as for the most part to admit of exact calculation. Then of the permanent importance of these subjects, and the interests they are fitted to create beyond the other heads of moral science, there can be no doubt whatever. The story of national affairs; the events or the measures which change the condition and which influence the fortunes of the community, in whole or in part; the rise and decay of institutions affecting the welfare of millions; the course of a policy upon which depends the happiness, perhaps the existence, of a state; the changes in the structure of Government, or in its functions as bearing upon the concerns of the community at large—these are subjects of the deepest interest even in contemplation, but they press still more upon our earnest attention because of their practical relations, and the tendency of their discussion to produce active exertions for the general good in connexion with them."

From this "high argument" the descent was great in some of the sectional papers and discus-

sions, but we admit that this is inevitable, and in the British Association one is exposed to the same revulsion of feeling, when an oration on the grand principles of science is followed in the sections by the announcement of some trivial discovery, or a debate about the affinities or characters of a species. These details are necessary in their place, and in themselves not to be despised, but in both the Associations it would be well to exercise greater control over the subjects to be brought before an assembled congress of physical or moral philosophers. As we have already stated, the great benefit we look for is in the enlightenment and education of public opinion on questions affecting the social welfare of the nation, and in this aspect of the meeting the closing words of the noble president's address are weighty and admirable.

"Nor let the importance be lightly considered of diffusing among the various classes of the community the knowledge of the subjects to which our inquiries will be directed, and which, though all are alike interested in them, yet are by no means sufficiently understood or estimated at their just value by the bulk of mankind. The slowness with which the humbler classes of our fellow citizens improve themselves in different branches of science, and, indeed, their reluctance to undergo the labour of studying them, has been often lamented, but without exciting the least surprise in those who duly considered the circumstances of the case. In the attempts that have been made for so many years to overcome such obstacles, and effect the more general diffusion of knowledge, the necessity has been too much overlooked of beginning with the upper classes of society. When these are well imbued with the taste for acquiring knowledge they have a natural tendency to make those in other ranks partake of the same great benefits. It is not that the whole or even the greater part of one class will become educators, but some will be inspired with the desire, not more benevolent than wise, of bearing the torch to the regions still without those lights which they themselves enjoy. Thus is sound and useful instruction propagated by a sure and natural process. Nor is it more certain that the various layers of the great social structure are bound together by the mighty clasp of justice administered to all, and binding on all, from the broad basis of the people upwards, through the middle classes and the aristocracy to the Crown itself, on the narrow summit, than it is certain that knowledge pervades the vast pyramid by successively imbuing and disposing the couches of which it is formed. Knowledge thus diffused, but especially knowledge of social interests and rights and duties, even more than the firm and temperate distribution of justice itself, possesses the great, the cardinal virtue of insuring the stability of the social system. It is, to use the language of the day, in the very greatest degree Conservative, and in the highest sense of the phrase. But this diffusion has another and most happy tendency,—it leads to the improvement of the system, because it inspires all classes with the desire of promoting measures shown to be safe as well as effectual—in a word, wholesome reforms. Nor can anything be more groundless than the fears of progress entertained by some—affected by more. It is, in truth, ignorance continued, not knowledge advanced, which they have to fear—nay, which, when we come to an explanation with them, they really do fear. Knowledge is power; but its natural ally is the friendly power of virtue, with which its dominion is willingly shared. This is above all true of the knowledge which we shall seek to improve and to impart. The supreme Disposer and Preserver, who 'decketh himself with light as it were a garment, but defendeth all the earth as it were with a shield,' has provided that the false steps into which we are led by the twilight will be prevented or retraced when the day dawns. If any one is still alarmed at the force which the people seem to gain when their faculties are expanded by cultivation, let him recollect that this happy process cannot be continued, and further knowledge acquired, without a new security being given by that very increase of knowledge against

the delusions and the excesses from which the peace of the community has most to fear. We are reminded by the subject, as well as by the place where we are assembled, of the exquisite invention, the happiest perhaps in the history of science, which makes the power of steam provide by its expansion for its own control, the one very nicely proportioned to the other. Knowledge is thus both power and safety—it exercises this self-control; it gives to the mighty social engine both the movement and the governor—

'Unmeasured strength with perfect art combined,
Awe, serves, amazes, and protects mankind.'

But it is not safety alone that we expect; we fondly hope for more; we confidently look higher. Undaunted by the resistance of adversaries, undismayed by the obstructions which the bias of prejudice, or the conflicts of faction, or the strife of controversy raise to impede social progress or to retard, its friends lift up their view to the loftier heights where religious and moral truth sheds an eternal light. Piercing the darkness of ignorance that shrouds 'one region, the mists of doubt that obscure, the storms of passion that vex, the instinct of selfishness that chills another, the eye loves to repose on that bright summit where the same beams dispel all doubt from our opinions towards God, and warm our benevolent feelings towards man:—

'As some tall cliff that lifts its awful form,
Swells from the vale, and midway leaves the storm;
Though round its breast the rolling clouds are spread,
Eternal sunshine settles on its head.'

These are words and sentiments worthy of the best days of Lord Brougham, whose appearance on this occasion recalled general recollections of his former labours in the cause of education and the improvement of the people. His narrative of the proceedings of one institution, in the formation of which he took a prominent part, and of the labours of which he could say *quorum pars magna fui*, have historical interest and value:—"About thirty years ago the Society was founded for Diffusing Useful Knowledge, its object being to bring the different branches of science and of literature within the reach of the great bulk of the community by reducing the cost of books, maps, and prints to a very moderate scale, and by preparing various works at once didactic and attractive. The committee which carried on these operations consisted of sixty persons among the most eminent in science and literature, ancient and modern, with members of three learned professions, and distinguished statesmen. Regular meetings were held to receive reports of sub-committees charged with preparing the various works composed either by their own members or by authors who were employed. Every matter was discussed by the general committee, both on the writings submitted and on the new works to be undertaken. The most severe examination had been applied by the sub-committees, but the proof-sheets were further submitted to the whole of the members, who had to consider both the substance and the manner of treating it; and even those who on any subject might not feel competent to criticize the scientific part exercised a vigilant superintendence over the style, so that errors in composition and offences against correct, even severe, taste were sure to be detected. Now, the great number of our members, profiting, moreover, by the communications of about seventy local committees, and the advantage of constant intercourse among the members of the central body, enabled the Society in the twenty years of its active operations to publish not only with unbroken regularity treatises twice a month, but various other works not given periodically. Above 200 volumes have thus appeared. The circulation of the scientific works frequently reached 25,000, of those in more general use 40,000, while of the preliminary discourse the circulation was 100,000, and of the weekly, or 'Penny Magazine,' it exceeded 200,000; and this gave rise to works of a like description, as did also the scientific treatises, so that the effects of the Society's labours were not circumscribed within the classes among whom its works circulated. And it further had the satisfaction of finding that the price of books, maps, and

prints was exceedingly lowered, while their numbers were greatly multiplied. Cheap literature was found to be the true interest of authors as well as publishers, and was no longer confined to light reading, but extended to works of science and art, prepared with unremitting attention to the explanation of all technical terms and all obscure allusions, and removing whatever obstructions are found in the path of the learner; so that the youth of humble station could no longer be met by those distressing difficulties, both in expense and in the want of truly didactic works, which had before made the pursuit of self-education all but hopeless. A still more important service, however, was rendered by teaching professional authors and publishers that there is a market for true and substantial knowledge among the people at large. Other important incidental advantages accrued from the Society's labours. One of these advantages was that many works, some of them periodical, remarkable for their ignorance and folly, and others filled with ribaldry and scurrility, and of a hurtful tendency towards the interests of both Church and State, were discontinued. Another beneficial consequence was that the translation of several of the Society's works into many European languages, as of the preliminary discourse into six of them, and some Oriental tongues, gave rise to the establishment in some countries—as France, Holland, and America—of institutions on a similar principle, and leading to similar publications. It has been inaccurately stated that the Society has ceased to exist. It is a body incorporated by Royal charter, and cannot be extinguished unless by a forfeiture. In fact, although for some years it has not been in active operation, because almost all the purposes of its institution had been amply fulfilled, yet as soon as its interposition was required, it stood forward, and I had the honour of presenting to the House of Lords its petition against the removal of the Great Exhibition from London to Sydenham—a proceeding which was felt to deprive the working and even the middle classes of the helps to the acquisition of knowledge furnished by the Exhibition while it remained in town. There is even less foundation for the other charge brought against the Society, that classical studies are undervalued in its publications. Works issued under the superintendence of the first scholars of the day—the Maltbys, the Arnolds, the Thirlwalls, and others, are not likely to be the just objects of this grave reproach; and all the members of the committee well know that they had been repeatedly but falsely accused of too great a devotion to classical subjects—subjects and studies which lay the solid foundations of pure taste, and had they no more substantial merit, are most sweet, as relaxing the severe brow of science—

'—dulces ante omnia mæsa,
Quarum sacra fero, ingenti percussus amore.'"

MINERAL STATISTICS.

THE Keeper of the Mining Records in the Museum of Practical Geology has just issued, through the Director-General of the Survey, his tenth annual report of the Mineral Statistics of the United Kingdom. Owing to the great labour and careful measures of conciliation necessary to procure returns from the various Mine Owners, Colliery Proprietors, Iron Masters, Iron Smelters, and others, it has required almost a decade of years to bring this useful statistical machine into good working order. The returns for 1854 and 1855 were tolerably universal. For the past year 1856 they are all that could be desired, and the result is a volume of 200 pages, consisting chiefly of closely-printed tables, in which the ingenuity of the statistician is brought to bear upon the mineral produce of the country—tin, copper, lead, silver, zinc, iron, arsenic, nickel, coal, salt, barytes, fluor spar, porcelain, clays, and building stones—with a copiousness that must surprise any who may have hesitated to supply the materials.

The value of the mineral produce of the United Kingdom in 1856, at the mine, colliery, or quarry, before any charges for carriage have been made, or

cost added in any way for manufacture, was upwards of 30½ millions sterling, as follows:—

Tin Ore	663,850
Copper Ore	2,343,960
Lead and Silver	1,431,509
Zinc Ore	27,455
Iron Pyrites	46,066
Iron Ore	5,695,815
Arsenic	1,911
Nickel and Uranium	527
Coals	16,663,862
Salt	553,993
Barytes, &c.	10,000
Porcelain, &c.	120,896
Building Stones	3,042,478

30,602,322

Of all these substances the quantities obtained in 1856 are larger than those of the preceding years, but of coals the increase is something extraordinary. The money value of coals is now more than half that of all the other mineral substances put together, and the increase in quantity is upwards of two million tons! The coal produce of last year, as compared with the two preceding years, is as follows:—

1854	64,661,401
1855	64,453,070
1856	66,645,450

Of this increase of the raising of coal nearly one-half has been wanted for export, while the remainder has been called for by the enormous increase of our iron manufactures and railways. Nearly one-fourth of the whole amount of coal raised in the United Kingdom is the produce of the mines of Durham and Northumberland. Those two counties are being undermined at the rate of fifteen millions of tons per annum, and yet, say geologists, we have no need to fear our supply of coal falling short for some hundreds of years. Yorkshire yields nine millions of tons per annum, and Lancashire nearly the same. Salt would appear to be an article of not very large consumption, yet the produce of last year exceeded 1½ million tons, nearly half of which, however, is exported to foreign countries chiefly by the river Weaver, through Cheshire to Liverpool.

In the present volume Mr. Hunt has been able to give more attention to the smaller articles of mineral produce, and we have pleasure in giving insertion to some interesting remarks under this head on the gypsum, fluor spar, or alabaster of Derbyshire:—

"Alabaster is the name given in this country to certain varieties of gypsum (sulphate of lime). In Italy and on the Continent generally, the name 'alabaster' is also given to various kinds of carbonates of lime of a stalactitic formation, and is by them called 'Oriental alabaster'; but the material now under consideration is the compact gypsum of our own quarries. This is found in the Red Marl formation, more or less plentiful in various parts of our country; but the most famous localities are in the neighbourhood of Derby, where it exists in apparently inexhaustible quantities, and has been worked for many centuries. The great bulk of alabaster is used for making plaster of Paris, and as a manure: it is the basis of many kinds of cements patented as Keene's, Martin's, and others. To get it for these purposes it is worked by mining underground, and the stone is blasted by gunpowder; but this shakes it so much as to render it unfit for working into ornaments, &c. to procure blocks for which purpose it is necessary to have an open quarry, by removing the superincumbent marl and laying bare a large surface of the rock, which, being very irregular in form, and jutting out in certain parts, allows of its being *sawn* out in blocks of considerable size and comparatively sound (as is illustrated by the large Tazza in our Museum). This stone, when protected from the action of water, is extremely durable, as may be seen in churches all over the country, where monumental effigies, many centuries old, are now as perfect as the day they were made, excepting of course wilful injuries; but as exposure

to rain soon decomposes the stone, it must be borne in mind that it is perfectly unsuited for garden vases, or other out-door work in this country.

"In working, it can be sawn up into slabs with toothed saws; and for working mouldings and sculpture, fine chisels, rasps, and files are the implements used; the polishing is performed by rubbing it with pieces of sandstone of various degrees of fineness, and water, until it is quite free from scratches, and then giving a gloss by means of polishing powder (oxide of tin) applied on a piece of cloth, and rubbed with a considerable degree of friction on the stone. Alabaster gives employment in Derby to a good many hands, in forming it into useful and ornamental articles, and is commonly called 'Derbyshire spar'; most of the articles are turned in the lathe, and it works something like very hard wood.

"Another kind of gypsum, also found in Derbyshire, is the fibrous or silky kind; it occurs in thin beds from one to six inches in depth, and is crystallized in long needle-like fibres, being easily worked, susceptible of a high polish, and quite lustrous. It is used for making necklaces, bracelets, brooches, and such like small articles.

"All the Derbyshire marbles are procured from the mountain limestone formation, and are found in various parts of the country in great variety, but only a few of them lie in regular beds capable of being worked for marble only; in such quarries large masses can be procured suitable for working up into chimney-pieces, tables, floors, &c. The most abundant kind is the entrochial marble, which is a complete mass of fossil encrinites imbedded in a matrix of carbonate of lime; these have been so broken up and intermixed, that when sawn into slabs and polished, sections of the fossils are shown in all directions. Of this marble there are many varieties, some of them being so dissimilar as to appear to be a different kind; that containing large encrinites is locally called 'fossil marble,' and according to its tint,—red, grey, blue, &c. Another kind is composed of small fragments of encrinites about the size of mustard seed, imbedded in the limestone matrix, which varies in colour from a light grey to a nearly black, and is called 'bird's-eye marble,' with its particular colour as a prefix; other varieties are known by the name of the quarry from whence they are obtained, as 'One Ash,' 'Sheldon,' 'Cole Hill,' &c. This kind of marble is used to the extent of about 20,000 cubic feet per annum, and, from its abundance, can be sold, when manufactured, at a very low price.

"The black marble of Derbyshire is procured from the Duke of Devonshire's quarries at Ashford, and is the finest known, both for colour and texture. It lies in beds of from half an inch to ten inches in thickness, and the demand for it would be very great, but unfortunately it is extremely subject to veins of white calcareous spar, and shakes, which render it difficult to procure in large sizes of pure black; but in Derbyshire it is worked extensively into chimney-pieces, and such as is not large enough for that purpose is sold to the manufacturers of chimney ornaments, &c., by whom it is made into numberless beautiful articles, such as tables inlaid after the manner of the Florentine mosaic, inkstands, vases, &c. The quantity used is about 500 tons per annum. Rosewood marble is exceedingly handsome; but being very hard, and, like the black, very subject to shakes, it is expensive, and therefore the quantity used is very small—not more than thirty tons per annum.

"In many parts of Derbyshire quarries of limestone are worked to a great extent, many thousand tons of which are used annually as a flux in smelting iron. In working these quarries they occasionally meet with prettily veined pieces—madrepores, &c.—which, when large enough, are used in making pedestals, and the smaller pieces for inlaying, &c. The lead mines also furnish a variety of specimens,—spars, stalactites, coloured barytes, &c.

"Fluor spar in masses large enough for working into ornaments seems to be peculiar to Derbyshire, where it is manufactured into vases and various

other small articles so well known as 'Derbyshire spar.' There are several varieties, the most beautiful and least plentiful being the kind known by the name of 'blue John'; this is only procured in one locality, Castleton, in the Peak. The fine blue and purple colour, occasionally intermixed with white and yellow, together with its transparency, renders it one of the most attractive of stones; it is frequently mistaken on the Continent for amethyst, and is valuable, being worth in its rough state from 30*l.* to 60*l.* per ton, and very fine pieces as much as 200*l.* This manufacture requires a very skilful workman.

"The other spars are transparent, white, and yellow, and some of these are intermixed with galena and barytes, others with minute sparkling crystals of iron pyrites, and are so varied that scarcely two are alike.

"All these marbles and spars are manufactured in various parts of the county, and give employment to from 350 to 400 men. At Derby a steam-engine is employed to give motion to a number of machines for sawing, polishing, and turning, which greatly facilitates and reduces the cost of working those Derbyshire spars and marbles."

GOSSIP OF THE WEEK.

THE Disney professorship of Archæology has been augmented by a bequest of 2500*l.* Consols from the founder, recently deceased.

Dr. Henry Wentworth Acland, F.R.S., son of Sir Thomas Dyke Acland, has received the appointment of the Regius Professorship of Medicine at Oxford, in room of the late Dr. Ogle.

Advantage has been taken of the presence of Lord Brougham, and other distinguished personages, at Birmingham, this week, to give *catal* to the opening of the Midland Counties Institute. The first stone of the building, it may be remembered, was laid by Prince Albert, in 1855, and much ceremony. On the present occasion Lord Hatherton, the President of the Institute, was in the chair, supported by Lord Brougham, Lord John Russell, Lord Stanley, and many of the eminent members of the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science. Appropriate speeches were delivered, and there is very little doubt of the sanguine expectations of this inauguration festival being realized. The working men and tradespeople of Birmingham are an intelligent and energetic class, and all schemes of popular instruction have here prospered more than in most other provincial places.

Urgent representations and formal petitions have not shaken the resolution of the trustees of the Art Treasures Exhibition at Manchester to close at the last announced time, this 17th day of October. The crowds that have visited the exhibition this week have exceeded all anticipation. On the last of the shilling days of admission, the number was close upon twenty-nine thousand, (28,984), and nearly ten thousand visitors have come forward on the half-crown days. The expenses of the season will, it is said, be now fully met, and the guarantee fund not required. There is to be no ceremony at the conclusion, beyond the performance of music and the Queen's anthem at the ordinary hour of closing the building.

The quiet town of Kendal was enlivened one evening last week by the appearance of Dr. Livingstone, who gave a lecture to a crowded assemblage, in the Friends' Meeting House, on his African travels, and the prospects of the regions he had explored, in regard both to missionary and commercial operations. Sir John Richardson and Professor Sedgwick were amongst the company, and addressed the audience, expressing their high gratification with the statements they had heard, and their confidence in the important results that would follow from the discoveries and labours of the distinguished traveller. Dr. Livingstone has since addressed large and influential meetings in various towns. That at Liverpool this week was presided over by F. Shand, Esq., the Mayor, and among those who took part in the proceedings were the venerable

Dr. Raffles, and T. B. Horsfall, Esq., President of the African Association. In Manchester the Chamber of Commerce has taken a deep interest in Dr. Livingstone's statements regarding the capabilities of the Zambesi territory as a cotton supplying district, and there is every hope of this part of Africa being now opened up to commerce and civilization. Dr. Livingstone will return to the field of his devoted labours with opportunities of usefulness that have rarely been enjoyed by travellers.

We deeply regret to state that an eminent American, travelling in this country, has been made the victim of a piece of wanton and cowardly ruffianism, on the part of some miscreant as yet undetected. A few days since Professor Rogers, whose reputation as a man of science is European as well as American, was proceeding up the Eastern Counties line on a visit to Professor Sedgwick, at Norwich. A few miles past Wymondham station some one threw a heavy stone at it, which struck Professor Rogers on the face, and fractured his lower jaw. He is under medical treatment, and the injury may prove permanent.

An important archaeological discovery has been made at Filey. Part of the cliffs near Filey Brigg having been washed down by the recent floods, the discovery of a curious bone among the debris led to further investigations, which resulted in finding the remains of a Roman wall, human bones, shells, skulls of animals, the remains of charred wood, and an earthen vase. Further explorations are to be instituted as soon as permission has been obtained, and it is anticipated that the results will prove both curious and important.

Despite the authority of the Foreign Office, the new and most convenient word 'telegram' is not to be allowed to take its place in our language without a protest. Several correspondents have addressed the newspapers on the subject, maintaining that if 'telegraph' is to be altered into 'telegram,' consistency will require us to write henceforth, photograph, autogram, &c.—a manifest *reductio ad absurdum*. They are, however, in error. By universal consent, 'telegraph' has come to signify not the message itself, but the instrument by which it is delivered,—thus, when people travel by rail, and see the wires carried along the line, they say 'There is the telegraph,' but when they receive a message the remark is, 'I have just got a telegraphic dispatch.' Now telegraphic dispatch is a circumlocution from which we should be thankful to be delivered, and we ought not to complain if our liberation were effected even at the cost of some trifling damage to old Priscian's *occupit* or *sinciput*. In point of fact, however, the new word is compounded in the most orthodox manner possible from *τηλε* *εγγραμμενον*—exactly after the manner of *diagram*, to which no one, so far as we know, ever made the least objection.

It is anticipated that the King's Library, Grenville Library, and MS. Room at the British Museum will be opened for public inspection about the end of the present month, on which occasion, as in 1851, many of the rarest and most precious books and MSS. will be exhibited in show-cases. The public will thus be indebted to Mr. Panizzi for the restoration of a privilege of which they have been deprived so long that it is now all but forgotten that it was ever enjoyed.

Some curious facts have transpired relative to the number printed, and the distribution made, of the special services prepared for the day of humiliation. Out of 50,000 copies distributed among the clergy, 1000 were required, or supposed to be required, by bishops, deans, and canons. The number sold, either to the trade, or to the clergy-men desirous of distributing the service among their flocks, was no less than 1,100,000 copies, 4000 copies were purchased for sale in the Crystal Palace alone, but three-fourths of these were left on the speculator's hands. Two copies were bound in black velvet for the use of the Queen and the Prince Consort, and one in black morocco for that of each of the Royal Family. The Prince of Wales was further complimented with a special translation in Welsh.

"The Bayard of the Indian Army," was the title given by the late Sir Charles Napier to Colonel, now Sir James Outram. That gallant soldier has given another illustration of the chivalry which elicited from Napier so high an eulogium, true *laus a laudato*. The Indian despatches just received record that Outram, while on his advance to reinforce, and as was generally supposed to supersede Havelock as his superior officer, wrote to say that "to him should be left the glory of relieving Lucknow, for which he had so nobly struggled." Outram added that he would accompany the force in his civil capacity, merely placing his military services at the disposal of General Havelock. There is more honour to Outram in this communication of courtesy than he could gain in any passage of arms. Lord Hardinge's putting himself under the command of the army on the Sutlej during the Sikh war, although the Governor-General of India, was an act of similar spirit, and history will not overlook these personal episodes in the records of the Indian wars.

The inauguration of the statue of Thomas Moore in front of Trinity College, Dublin, has taken place this week. On the part of the subscribers Lord Charlemont, Lord Talbot de Malahide, and others appeared; the Lord Mayor acknowledging the reception of the statue on the part of the city, while the Lord-Lieutenant, by his presence and his address, gave public sanction and official *éclat* to the proceedings of the day. We hear at present of not a few monumental memorials of the same kind, both at home and abroad. In Paris a subscription has been commenced for a statue of Daniel Manin, the patriotic Italian, whose defence of Venice against the Austrians, in 1849, was one of the most gallant military events of recent times. We noticed last week the inauguration of a statue of Madame de Sévigné, at Grignan. There is the statue of Handel getting ready for Halle, and that of Luther for Worms, and a statue of Correggio is now spoken of as in progress for Parma. Mr. Foley's statue of Lord Hardinge, for Calcutta, has arrived in London from Messrs. Elkington's foundry, and will be exhibited, in the course of a few days, in the square in front of Burlington House, where a temporary pedestal has been erected.

In the obituary of last week appears the name of Charles Hulbert, Esq., who died at Hadnal, near Shrewsbury, on the 7th inst. Mr. Hulbert was the author of the 'History of Salop,' a book containing much curious archaeological and topographical matter, and another work known to local archaeologists, 'The Antiquities of Cheshire.' A volume of poems, a collection of Christian memoirs, a manual of devotion, and various other publications, were among the fruits of Mr. Hulbert's literary labours.

Messrs. Hurst and Blackett announce in their list of publications for the new season the following works:—Mr. Atkinson's Narrative of his Seven Years' Travels in Oriental and Western Siberia, Chinese Tartary, &c., embellished with upwards of fifty illustrations, including numerous beautifully coloured plates from the author's original drawings. A new work by Mr. Martin F. Tupper, entitled 'The Rides and Reveries of Mr. Esop Smith,' in 1 vol. 'Personal Recollections of the last Four Popes,' by Cardinal Wiseman. 'A Woman's Thoughts about Women,' by the author of 'John Halifax,' 1 vol. A new and revised edition of Lady Falkland's 'Chow-Chow,' in 2 vols.; and a new and cheaper edition, with numerous additional illustrations, of 'The Oxonian in Norway,' by the Rev. F. Metcalfe, in 1 volume. The same publishers have in the press, among other works of fiction by popular writers—'The Lady of Glynn,' by the author of 'Margaret and Her Bridesmaids'; 'Orphans,' by the author of 'Margaret Maitland'; 'Caste,' by the author of 'Mr. Arle'; 'Seymour and His Friends,' by Miss F. Williams; and new novels by Miss Kavanagh and Mrs. Grey.

The winter session of the Faculty of Arts at University College, London, was inaugurated, on Tuesday, by an introductory lecture by Professor

Creasy, on the Scientific and Practical Study of History.

Lord Macaulay is expected to have the offer of the High Stewardship of the University of Cambridge, vacant by the death of Earl Fitzwilliam, and if advantage can be taken of the occasion for the delivery of an academical oration, the public, as well as the University, will have additional cause to be pleased with the appointment.

Queen's College, Cork, has lost one of its professors in the person of William Smith, Esq., Professor of the English language and literature, who died in Cork on the 6th of this month.

An important auction of literary property will take place at the end of the month, when the copyrights and remainders of the late Mr. David Bogue will be offered for sale by Messrs. Southgate and Barrett.

The Rev. Charles Kingsley has been lecturing at Bristol, on social science, to crowded audiences.

The Academy of Sciences of Paris has recommended M. d'Archiac and M. Bayle to the Government as candidates for the chair of Paleontology, in the Museum of Natural History, vacant by the death of M. d'Orbigny.

Of the planets recently discovered by M. Goldschmidt, of Paris, one, the forty-fifth of the series, has received the name of "Eugenia," in honour of the Empress of the French; and another, the forty-ninth, has been named "Pales." We learn with pleasure that M. Goldschmidt, for his discoveries of planets, has obtained from the French Government the honour of being appointed a member of the Legion of Honour.

Dr. W. Th. Streuber died on the 6th instant, at the early age of 41. He was an eminent Professor of Philology at the University of Basle, and had written on the Satires of Horace, and had contributed much to the history of his country.

Dr. Albers, private Consulting Physician to the King of Prussia, of some eminence as a naturalist, and well known to European conchologists by his works on the systematic classification of the land shells, died at Stuttgart on the 27th ultimo, in the 63rd year of his age.

We have to record the death of an eminent botanist, Dr. Johann Heuffel. He resided at Lugos, in the Banat, and devoted himself with unwearied diligence to collecting and arranging the plants found in that country. His collection of dried plants consisted not only of those indigenous to his own land, but contained specimens from every quarter of the globe. His valuable herbarium has passed into the hands of the Catholic bishop, Dr. Alexander von Hajnal, in Liebenhungen. It is to be hoped that a work Dr. Heuffel has left in manuscript, entitled 'Enumeratio Plantarum Banatus,' the fruit of thirty years' indefatigable labour, will be given to the world. Dr. Heuffel was a skilful physician, and, as a man, universally beloved.

In the last sitting of the Academy of Sciences of Paris, it was announced that some tombs which appear to be of Celtic origin have just been discovered near Djelfa, a place eighty French leagues from Algiers on the road to Laghouat. In one of them were some of the bones and teeth of a man and some bones of a child. At a short distance from the tombs was a stone similar to those which, in France, are supposed to have served for the immolation of human victims. Tombs of a like kind were discovered some years back at Accouater, and Biskava, and others no doubt exist in different parts of Algeria. It is assumed that all these tombs were the burial places of the Gallic and Celtic soldiers who served in the Roman legions.

A purchase has recently been made which is interesting to Germans, and all lovers of German literature. In the neighbourhood of Düsseldorf stood the house and garden formerly inhabited by Jacobi—here many of the great literary men of the last age were in the habit of assembling, to discuss subjects of mutual interest, or enjoy in their leisure hours the society of the companions of their labours. Goethe, Tieck, and many others, resorted to this quiet retreat, which may therefore be re-

garded as classic ground. This house and garden has been purchased through the intervention of Herr Andreas Achenbach and Herr V. Siebel, for the Art Society, entitled Malkasten; and it is intended that the meetings of the Society shall in future be held in the rooms rendered sacred by so many associations. Here their library and collection of works of art will be preserved, and thus a suitable monument established of the times of Germany's most brilliant literary epoch.

A catalogue of old German books on mythology, archaeology, history of coins and medals, with many valuable old works, illustrated with engravings on wood and copper, has just been published at Bonn, by Herr Sempertz, a Cologne bookseller. The demand now made in America for old German books on all subjects has caused the price of them to rise immensely. This demand, which at first only affected the northern parts of Germany, begins now to raise the value of such works in the Rhine towns, where there has hitherto been but little sale for such publications.

The Russian government has been in correspondence with Professor Tischendorf, of Leipzig, on the subject of a journey he is desirous of undertaking. His proposal was listened to with interest by Herr von Noroff, the President of the Academy of Instruction in St. Petersburg, who, in passing through Leipzig, had an interview with the learned Professor. The object of the proposed journey is to search the monasteries of the East, for the treasures of learning they may contain. The success which attended a similar enterprise, undertaken many years ago by Professor Tischendorf, naturally leads to high expectations as to the result of the present journey. It is believed that it will be begun in spring.

It appears from a Customs return just published by the French Government, that the quantity of books, engravings, and lithographs exported from France in the first nine months of the present year was 15,123 kilogrammes—rather more than 15 English tons. The quantity of such objects imported is not stated. It will no doubt shock our readers to see books and other productions of the intellect estimated by weight; but such is the irreverent manner in which the French Custom-house deals with them.

The following somewhat singular announcement appears in the Paris papers:—"Now on sale, the *History of the Reign of William III.*, by Macaulay, being a continuation of the *History of the Revolution of 1688*, translated from the English by Amédée Pichot, 3 vols., price, &c." It seems to us that the translator of such an author as Macaulay has no right to give his greatest work a different title to that which he himself has adopted.

The 'Collège de France,' of Paris, one of the most renowned literary and scientific institutions of Europe, has hitherto enjoyed a certain independence,—nominating its own professors and assistant-professors, regulating its own courses of lectures, administering its own pecuniary and other affairs, &c. But the French Emperor has just decreed that henceforth its independence shall cease, and that it shall be placed in subjection to the government. Accordingly, it is the government, instead of the professors themselves, who will henceforth nominate the assistant-professors, and who will regulate all the business of the college. The measure has naturally afforded anything but satisfaction to the distinguished men who belong to the Collège de France, and the public is loud in condemning it.

The aged Sophie Schroeder, on the 7th instant, declaimed the *Frühlings Feier* (Festival of Spring) of Klopstock, and Schiller's Song of the Bell, at Berlin, before a crowded audience, who listened to the venerable artist with breathless attention. The critics are loud in praise of her wonderful powers, which survive all attacks of time.

From a report recently published by Prince Napoleon, who, it will be recollected, had the principal direction of the Paris Exhibition of 1855, it appears that the total number of visitors was 5,162,000, and the amount taken at the doors something under 3,000,000 francs, or about

115,000*l.* The expenditure being stated at 8,515,000 francs, it would appear that the Exhibition was very far indeed from paying its expenses. The increase in the number of arrivals in Paris during 1855 is returned as 753,000, the greater proportion of which is no doubt due to the Exhibition.

The Neapolitan Government has, it seems, thought fit to extend the paternal care so long bestowed by it upon the art of printing to the kindred art of engraving, which is now prohibited *in toto*, except by special permission of the police.

The Emperor of Russia is said to be making extensive additions to his library, and to have purchased, among other things, a complete collection of specifications of patents granted in England since 1617, amounting to 25,000.

FINE ARTS.

A NOVEL and elegant adaptation of the photographic art has been recently introduced by Messrs. Glover, Bower, and Miles, of 145, Regent-street. The invention, which has been patented, is called the 'Transparent Enamel Photographs.' Transparency is attained by fixing sheets of enamel upon glass surfaces, the two forming one plate. Upon the enamel face the picture is taken, the surface having been rendered sensitive by ordinary processes. Then, when inverted, the glass becomes a ready made protection for the pictures on one side, and another sheet of glass may be placed at the back or not, at pleasure. The enamel surface will also take water-colours, and when thus painted the effect is scarcely inferior to that of ivory. These colours are afterwards fixed by a peculiar process, which is one of the secrets of the invention. The advantages thus secured are transparency, capability of being perfectly cleansed, and, as it is confidently stated, durability of colours. The purity and delicacy of the result may be well imagined, and will doubtless bring the discovery into use for ornamental windows, lamp-shades, and all other transparencies. It will be valuable also for illuminations, and is quite available for stereoscopic views. The ground of the picture is, of course, a pure and perfect white, and this, though in some respects an advantage and a desideratum, has its drawbacks in producing, artistically speaking, too great contrasts of black and white. Want of tone is the defect of these pictures, but in everything else the effect is all that can be desired. It seems probable that the method will be extensively employed for the decorative purposes above alluded to, and the discovery is well worth the attention and inspection of those interested in this branch of art.

The first public distribution, in the provinces, of national medals bestowed on the students of the public schools of art, took place in Manchester, on the 9th instant. Addresses were delivered by Earl Grenville, the Rev. Canon Richson, and Messrs. Cole, Redgrave, and Edmund Potter. The latter gentleman stated that all distributions of this character had hitherto been made in London, but that it had been determined to hold them in the provinces for the future, in the hope of exciting a more lively interest on the part of those artisans and manufacturers for whose benefit the Schools of Art were designed. The proceedings were of a most satisfactory description.

A new artistic society, whose object is sufficiently indicated by its title, has been formed in London, under the designation of the Junior Etching Club. Among the members we remark Messrs. Millais, Luard, Martineau, Halliday, and Solomon.

It appears that the statement made in several quarters, of the late Earl Fitzwilliam having been the last surviving sitter to Sir Joshua Reynolds, is not correct. The present Earl de Grey and the present Earl of Ripon were both painted by Sir Joshua in the same picture, which has been engraved; and it is believed that an inquiry after other surviving sitters would result in the discovery of several.

Mr. Crawford, one of the most promising sculp-

tors yet produced by America, died last week at Rome, where he has chiefly resided for the last twenty years. He was a native of New York, where he was born in 1814. Of his statues in this country, the Flora and the Dancers are probably the best known, being in the collection at the Crystal Palace, Sydenham.

The museum of the Palace of Versailles, which, as is known, is dedicated to "all the glories of France," is about to receive a number of paintings by Horace Vernet, Yvon, and others, representing the principal battles and combats in the Crimean war, which battles and combats are held to belong to the said "glories." The paintings are to occupy two saloons—one to be called the Alma, and the other the Malakoff saloon.

A statue of Etienne Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire, the naturalist, was on Sunday last inaugurated, with great pomp, at Etampes, his native town, in France. M. Dumeril, member of the Institute, and also a distinguished naturalist, delivered a speech, in which he noticed the principal scientific labours of Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire, and especially his expedition to Egypt with the French army under Bonaparte, in which he not only made valuable observations, but collected important materials.

Munich has been chosen as the next place of meeting for the General German Art Union.

A beautiful present has just been sent from Karlsruhe to St. Petersburg, to Olga Feodorovna, the Princess Cécilia of Baden. It consists of a group of statues about three feet in height, cast at Paris in silver. It was modelled from a design of Herr Bayer, the court painter, by Herr Bauer, of Constance, and represents a knight bearing a shield (on which the figure of St. George is embossed, the patron saint of Russia), protecting a young girl who is surrounded by evil spirits; the whole is beautifully designed and spiritedly executed.

It is proposed to erect in the principal squares of Messina four statues of colossal size to the memory of the kings of the Bourbon dynasty. That of Ferdinand the Second, modelled in Rome by Tenerani, a cast in bronze by Herr von Miller, in Munich, and one in marble of Ferdinand the First, by Constantin Labarbera, are now being exhibited at Naples, in the Museo Borbonico. The other two statues of Charles the Third and Francis the First, the one by Zagari, in Rome, the other by Morello, in Palermo, are in an advanced stage of progress. Professor Tenerani has received the knightly cross of the Constantine order of St. George, as a proof of the king's approbation.

Two works are about to appear in Dresden by one of the artists of that city, whose reputation insures a welcome to whatever his pencil produces. Ludwig Richter has just completed twelve woodcuts illustrating Schiller's Song of the Bell, and he further promises a lithographed Sketch-book, which, it is thought, will be a valuable book of instruction in drawing.

The festival which was set in Rome of erecting monuments to commemorate the introduction of the dogma of the Immaculate Conception into the Catholic Church has been followed in Piacenza. The Duke Regent has promised to contribute the column on which a statue of the Virgin is to be placed. The column is of ancient Roman workmanship, having lain for many years unnoticed in the neighbourhood of the Farnese palace. The expense of the statue is to be defrayed by private subscriptions, and sixteen thousand francs have been already raised.

The Archduke Maximilian has purchased several pictures from the Art Union in Milan, both for the Emperor of Austria and for himself, and the Arch-Duchess Charlotte.

MUSIC AND THE DRAMA.

ANOTHER actress, new to the metropolitan stage, though with good provincial reputation, Miss Amy Sedgwick, from Manchester, has appeared at the Haymarket, as *Pauline* in the *Lady of Lyons*, and

as *Constance* in *The Love Chase*. Abundant physical energy, good intelligence, a capital voice, and considerable stage experience, are the chief qualifications which Miss Sedgwick brings, but there is lack of refinement and taste, and the more striking scenes may be as much the fruit of histrionic routine as of dramatic genius. The part of *Pauline* is a common choice with *débütantes*, but that of *Constance* is less familiar in our day, and at the Haymarket Sheridan Knowles's play of *The Love Chase* has not been performed for many years. With those who remember Mrs. Nisbett, any young actress has scarcely chance of her performance being fairly judged; but there are few who could have made a more favourable impression than Miss Sedgwick, by her hearty and spirited representation of neighbour *Constance*. The fault, indeed, was an excess of brusqueness, the artificiality of which was too apparent. This was chiefly, however, in the first act, when every sentence almost was followed by a boisterous laugh, which would appear more natural, if less frequent and more varied. The scene where *Wildrake* is rallied about his announced marriage is capably acted, and all the tumult in the high-spirited *Constance's* heart is well expressed. Mr. Howe's *Wildrake* was equally expressive in the latter scenes, though his earlier representation of the rough untutored squire is less successful. The *Widow Green* of Mrs. Marston, and the *Sir William Fondlove* of Mr. Chippendale are both admirable in their way, and as good as have been witnessed since Mrs. Glover and Mr. Farren were on the stage. The parts of *Master Waller* and of *Lydia* were personated by Mr. William Farren and Mrs. Buckingham White, whose re-engagement is an acquisition to the Haymarket company.

Mr. Charles Kean has commenced his season at the Princess's with *The Tempest*, which is to be followed by reproductions of some of the other scenic exhibitions upon which so much labour and money have been expended, to the gratification of the public and the advantage of the manager, if not to the advancement of dramatic art. The theatre has been re-decorated during the recess, and the new drop scene and the Shakspearian illustrations on the panels of the boxes, materially improve the appearance of the house, the dingy look of which has contrasted strongly with the gorgeous splendour of the stage scenery for several seasons past.

Mr. Rogers, whose unseemly exhibition with regard to the Windsor theatricals removed him from active service with the Olympic company, is about to make a professional tour in the United States, previous to his departure on which he took a benefit this week at the Strand Theatre, Mr. and Mrs. Keeley, Mr. Robson, and others, taking part in the performances.

We are glad to hear good accounts of Mr. Wigan's health, who has been benefited by his stay at Scarborough this summer. Mr. Robson is about to fulfil a provincial engagement, entered on before he obtained his share in the management of the Olympic, where Mr. Wilkie Collins's drama, *The Lighthouse*, and the burlesque of *Massaniello* continue to attract crowded houses.

At the Théâtre Français at Paris, M. Ernest Legouvé has brought a comedy in two acts, entitled *Le Pamphlet*. For some time past Paris has been utterly deluged with pamphlets, in which the private life of eminent politicians, financiers, authors, artists, and *savans*, is laid bare without scruple, and is made the subject of the grossest calumnies. Received at first with that vulgar curiosity with which the vulgar public is wont to welcome scandal, these pamphlets were eagerly read; but latterly they have gone to such lengths that they have created disgust, and the authors of some of them have fallen under the vengeance of the law. It was supposed that the piece of M. Legouvé would be a vigorous onslaught on this literary nuisance; but he has placed the scene of his comedy at Madrid, has made the hero of it the unfortunate Clavijo, so notorious from the manner in which he was persecuted by the celebrated Bea-

marchais, and has not worked his subject so effectively as it might have been worked. His play, therefore, though received with favour, has not made that hit which, as a *pièce de circonstance*, it was expected to do. It is fairly acted by Geffroy, Regnier, and Mdlle. Fix.

Balfe's opera, the *Bohemian Girl*, had the honour of being represented at the grand gala performance at the Theatre Royal at Stuttgart, which was given by the King of Wurtemberg in honour and in the presence of the Emperor and Empress of Russia, the Emperor of the French, the Queen of Greece, and the Queen of Holland. The opera was got up in splendid style, and was well executed, the chief performers in it being Mrs. Marlow and Herr Pusscheck. The orchestra and the choruses were carefully drilled.

Miss Catherine Hayes, the eminent vocalist, has changed her name and condition, having been united in London, on the 8th instant, to Mr. Bushnell, of New York.

LEARNED SOCIETIES.

BRITISH ASSOCIATION.

MR. A. B. WYNNE, 'On the Geology of the Galty Mountains, &c.' Having recently to examine the geology of a large portion of the Galty Mountains from where they rise, out of the low limestone country between Charleville and Buttevant at the west, to where they terminate in it again at Caher to the east, together with parts of the adjacent counties, I have been enabled to construct a nearly north-and-south section across the summit of Galty More from an outlier of the coal-measures on the south, through the carboniferous limestone, Old Red Sandstone, and Silurian, to the limestone of the Glen of Aheol on the north. And this section may be regarded as typical of the geological structure of the lofty range of the Galty Mountains. The Lower Silurian, occupying chiefly a large hollow in the centre of the mountains, surrounded by hills of varying height, capped with the lower conglomerate of the Old Red Sandstone, is composed of dark-coloured green, olive, red, and purple slates, grits and gritty sandstones, generally striking in a nearly east-and-west direction, dipping at high angles, sometimes to the north, sometimes to the south, and often much contorted. Upon, and unconformable to it, rests the Old Red Sandstone, which, from previously existing irregularities in the surface of the Silurian, or from other causes, seems to have been very unequally deposited, as will be seen by referring to the section, where this formation is represented on the north by somewhat less than half its thickness to the south. It frequently presents fine examples of oblique lamination, and the only traces of organic life which I have met with in it are some small markings of two kinds, probably annelid tracks or fucoids, in beds of fine Red Sandstone, near the base of the formation, specimens of which are on the table. The basal bed of the Old Red Sandstone is generally a thick, soft conglomerate formed of red grit, pebbles, and fragments of the Silurian in a purple paste, with very few pebbles of quartz. This character is not, however, constant, for it is sometimes found to be a green breccia with some rounded fragments of purple grit, and sometimes a few beds of red sandstone intervene between the conglomerate and the Silurian. Further up in the formation, at about half its thickness, occurs another marked band of conglomerate, the space between it and the basal one being occupied by red grits and sandstones. It is in one place 400 feet thick, and its pebbles are chiefly of quartz in a purple paste. Small and much rounded pebbles of syenite and trap are also found in it, as well as some fragments of green and grey grit. Above this are more red grits, getting paler as they approach the top, and having bands of liver-coloured shale, interstratified with yellowish and coarse grey and greenish sandstone, where the section is thickest. At about 1200 feet above the last-mentioned conglomerate occur certain beds of purple ferruginous sandstone, having, when weathered, a pitted appearance. And

just above them I have drawn the very arbitrary boundary of the yellow sandstone, which, on the southern slopes of the Galtys, may be about 1200 feet thick. There are just traces of some dark green gritty shales appearing in one or two places, which may be the representatives of the carboniferous slate. The thickness of all the Old Red, including the yellow, sandstone on the south side of the mountains may be in different places from 4000 to 4500 feet, while on the north side it is only 2000 feet thick. The carboniferous limestone is almost quite concealed by drift, and when seen is grey, compact, and sometimes slightly crystalline, containing corals and other fossils, but the Calp division does not appear. Upon it lies a thin outline of the coal measures, shown at the south end of the section, consisting of the lower black carbonaceous shales and thin olive grits, in which a shaft was sunk in the hope of finding culm, but the limestone was reached without success, and the search was then abandoned.

'On the Routes of Communication between England and India,' by Major-Gen. Chesney.—I should like to point out to you the various existing and proposed lines of route to India, in order that you may have clearly before your mind what it is that I am anxious to accomplish by this Euphrates route, of which you have so often heard. You all know our long sea line to India round the Cape. The red line on the map shows you the existing line by the Red Sea and Aden to Kurrachee and Calcutta. The yellow line shows the routes proposed by Sir Rowland Macdonald Stephenson, and the one apparently preferred by Lord Palmerston. It passes over the Balkan, the Taurus, and other mountain ranges, quite regardless of engineering difficulties. And the blue line is that which it has been proposed to carry out. You will at once perceive that, if a direct line be drawn along the globe from London to Bombay or Kurrachee, it exactly takes in the route by the Valley of the Euphrates; consequently this portion of the line has necessarily formed a part of all the various projects that have been advanced with a view to facilitating and shortening our communication with India, with one exception, brought to my notice in a paper read last year at Cheltenham, which is supposed to go from Acre across the Desert to Bussorah. The distances by the two overland routes are as follows:—

	English miles.
From London to the entrance of the Red Sea	4,372½
From the entrance of the Red Sea to Kurrachee, which will no doubt become the great port of India in place of Bombay	1,705
Total	6,077½
London to the entrance of the Persian Gulf	4,271
From the entrance of the Persian Gulf to Kurrachee	702
Total	4,973

The difference in favour of the Euphrates Valley being 1,104½ miles. The great gain, therefore, is from the entrance of the Red Sea and Persian Gulf onwards. From the Red Sea to Kurrachee we have 1,705 English miles; whilst we have only 702 from the head of the Persian Gulf to the same port, or less than one-half. In the one case we have the monsoon right ahead towards Aden; in the other it is nearly abeam to Ormuz. I need scarcely add, a difficult and dangerous navigation in the one case, and a perfectly safe one in the other. It was this great difference in the open sea distance of the two lines which made so great an impression on his late Majesty. When looking at the map, he at once said, "I am a sailor, and can appreciate this great advantage;" and up to his lamented death he warmly supported the Euphrates route. The completion of the proposed arrangements would enable us to get over this distance, and carry mails and passengers from London to Kurrachee, in thirteen days and a half, or less than half the time at present occupied in the transit by the Red Sea; while by laying down an electric telegraph line by this route, we may, in eighteen or twenty hours, be assured of the welfare of some friend or relative in a distant part of India, whose fate is now a matter of uncertainty and

anxiety. I should just point out to you also that the proposed railway will form a chain of communication with those lines up the Valley of the Indus, &c., now in progress of completion in India, and will thus give us as direct a route as can be had between London and Lahore. From the period of Julian, A.D. 363, we have no record of any great military expedition in connexion with Western Asia until Napoleon conceived the idea, in 1809, of transporting a force down the Euphrates with a view to the invasion of India. All his calculations and arrangements were made for this end. His troops were to have been transported on rafts, constructed of timber cut down in the vicinity and on the banks of the river and sea coast. With a little of his daring we might do the same at this moment, and with much greater facility. The garrisons in the Mediterranean might readily spare 7,400—viz., 3,000 out of the 6,500 at Malta; 2,000 from the 4,000 at Corfu; and 2,400 might be detached from the 5,400 men stationed at Gibraltar. 2,400 might go through Egypt, and 5,000 could be carried in a few days by Admiral Lyons's fleet to the mouth of the Orontes. They would then have before them a march of 110 miles, with ample means of transport to the river. pontoons, native rafts, and boats would carry the force down to the Persian Gulf in less than fifteen days. There native vessels could be found to transport them to Kurrachee by a safe and rapid navigation at this season. There have been various proposals at different times for opening communication with India by the Euphrates Valley. That which took the most practical shape was elaborated by Lieut. Campbell, then of the Royal Engineers, in 1843. His proposal and map were in all essential points identical with those more recently proposed by the great engineer, Sir R. Macdonald Stephenson. These and many other subsequent proposals, both French and English, have all now become merged in the company of which Mr. Andrews is chairman, and Sir John Macneill, a man well known among you, engineer-in-chief. I was strongly pressed last year to join in the promotion of my favourite object of nearly a quarter of a century, and urged to proceed to Constantinople to obtain the necessary firman from the Sultan to make all preliminary arrangements. Feeling that with the prospect of a railway a more careful examination of the country to be traversed was desirable, I was accompanied by Sir John Macneill, civil engineer, and two assistant engineers. We reached Constantinople by the route of the Danube, opened negotiations, and made all preliminary arrangements with the Turkish Government, and then proceeded to Syria in H.M.S. *Stromboli*. We examined carefully the coast of Asia Minor, where the Taurus touches the sea, in the hope of finding a practicable valley for a future line through that country, and then proceeded to examine the coast for a good harbour. That of Alexandretta did not promise to answer, on account of its mountains, impassable for a railway; and the ancient harbour of Seleucia was also condemned, as not affording sufficient depth of water. But on the southern side of the Bay of Antioch a spot was selected by Sir John Macneill, admirably adapted to form a safe and commodious harbour of refuge. It will be capable of receiving second-rate line-of-battle ships, and will be as good as, or superior to, the harbour of Kingstown. The Turkish Government has engaged to bear the whole expense of the construction of this harbour, estimated at from 250,000*l.* to 300,000*l.*, and to carry out the works by English engineers simultaneously with those of the railway. The spot chosen is three miles south of the river Orontes, and six miles east of the old harbour of Seleucia. The harbour is proposed to be formed by running out a breakwater on the south side of the small natural harbour, which is a perfectly safe and secure landing-place for boats, with good holding ground, so that vessels taking out materials for the construction of the railway could anchor in safety off this landing-place. Stone of the finest quality abounds close to the point where the breakwater will abut on the land, and can be quarried also to any extent in the immediate neighbourhood. It is proposed to con-

struct about 1,000 feet of the breakwater in the first instance, and to complete each portion as the work advances, so as to afford shelter and landing wharfs within the first year or eighteen months, which will enable vessels drawing twenty feet of water to lie in safety during the winter months, if required to do so, and within six months from the commencement of the work a landing-place can be formed, and perfect shelter for boats, at an expense of 20,000*l.* The harbour, when completed, will be capable of giving shelter to thirty or thirty-five vessels. The average depth of water will be from twenty to forty feet. I have given these details in connexion with the proposed harbour, because I think you will agree with me that, irrespective of the route to India, a good harbour of refuge on the coast of Syria would of itself be of the utmost value and importance to all commercial nations. Our survey of the country and the subsequent trial sections of the engineers extended from the coast to within sight of the Euphrates, taking in the towns of Antioch and Aleppo. Beyond the latter, all engineering difficulties cease. The country presenting a hard dry level surface (called in Arabic *Ka Jalide*—flat and hard), most admirably adapted for a railway. And even between the Mediterranean and Aleppo the difficulties are such as would be considered small in this country. There will not be a single tunnel, and only two cuttings of any consequence. Two chain-bridges over the Orontes will be necessary; but neither do these present any obstacle to the engineering science of the present day. The average expenses for the first part of this line (which will be the most expensive portion of the whole) is estimated at 13,484*l.* per mile, and another portion, which also presents some difficulties, is 12,754*l.* per mile. But as portions beyond Aleppo fall very considerably below this average, some of them being estimated at only 4,693*l.* per mile, the average expense for the whole of this first section of the line from the harbour to the Euphrates has been calculated by Sir J. Macneill at 8,583*l.* per mile. On my way to Constantinople the terms of the concession were finally settled; but, owing to opposition from rival parties, they were less favourable than had been previously arranged. The Turkish Government gave a guarantee of six per cent. on the capital expended by the company, requiring from them a deposit of 28,000*l.* in exchange for the firman, with the condition that the works must be commenced within one year. The expense of the whole line is estimated at 6,600,000*l.*, but assistance from our Government on the first section only, or on a sum of 1,400,000*l.*, since the railway, after reaching Aleppo, will require no assistance whatever. The assistance asked—the whole amount of which is only 100,000*l.*—to supply the interest to the shareholders for three years until the railway shall be in working operation, is more nominal than real, the object being to give confidence to the public, for which the Turkish six per cent. guarantee is not sufficient. I found the Porte thoroughly alive to the great advantages likely to result to Turkey from the establishment of this line. The consolidation of the Sultan's power in distant provinces of his empire, the great extension of commerce to be expected, the centralization of the system of government—these and many other considerations were strongly felt by the Turks. We found, indeed, the existing commercial returns in Syria most satisfactory. Without taking into account any increase, Aleppo alone and her commerce would suffice to support a railway thus far, and would yield a return of eight per cent. to the shareholders. 1,800 shares were at once taken in Aleppo itself, and a petition was sent to the Sultan in favour of the railway. To the eastward of this city, however, a large additional trade may be expected (indeed a very extensive trade exists) which would all flow into this railway. We shall have Syria and Mesopotamia on one line, India and Central Africa beyond, with Kurdistan and Persia on one side and Arabia on the other. It is impossible to estimate the amount of traffic and commerce which will arise. It must be very large; it may be beyond what even England has ever seen or imagined—for there is no limit to the productive

powers of these countries, provided capital and skill be there to turn to account the vast provision for their realization contained in their noble rivers. The chief products at present are grain (which could be supplied to Europe to any extent), cotton of a very superior quality, which is already cultivated largely, but not yet well cleaned, in the neighbourhood of Mosul, and would be grown much more extensively if any means of transport existed. Mr. Rassam, Her Majesty's Consul at Mosul, tells me that 100,000 camel loads of cotton are now lying there for want of means of transport. Wool, also, copper, sugar, indigo, saltpetre, dyes of various kinds, bitumen, and various other products, are the present ordinary exports of Mesopotamia. Their demand for our goods would be proportionally large. At present the natives of Syria and Mesopotamia receive many of their supplies from Russia, through Trebizond, but their markets would be supplied by Manchester, Sheffield, Birmingham, &c., if the means of transport were established. It is, indeed, impossible to estimate the changes in European countries by throwing open to them these sources of commerce and openings for colonization. I have dwelt at some length on the commercial advantages to be expected from this line—although at this moment even these must yield in importance to the all-engrossing desire for more rapid communication with India. This and telegraphic wires in operation would be worth anything to England at this moment. The means of rapid and certain transmission of mails and passengers to India ought alone to decide the public and Government in favour of this line. For the transport of troops and stores it would be of inestimable importance. Few political objects, perhaps, could be of more consequence to England than those which will be so thoroughly accomplished by this line. I allude chiefly to the consolidation and to the commercial and political resuscitation of Turkey. We have expended lavishly money and lives ostensibly for this object, but without any benefit to ourselves, and without imparting any real strength to Turkey. By this line, however, we secure the defence of her frontier against Persia and Russia. History proves to you what a powerful influence has belonged at all times to the possession of the Valley of the Euphrates. A friend who is intimately acquainted with the East writes to me:—"I was in those countries during the Russian war, and frequently thought how different the position of that power would have been if their army had been moved in the direction of the Euphrates Valley, instead of invading the Principalities and European Turkey. Europe would have remained in a state of apathy, and public opinion, out of England at any rate, would have been for them. Had they reached Mosul under these circumstances they would have been in a country whose resources surpass almost any other in the world." This, or a very similar plan, was proposed to the Emperor Nicholas by one of his generals during the war of 1828-29. We may be thankful that it was not adopted. Dr. Sprenger says, "If properly managed, the Valley of the Tigris would soon be sufficiently prosperous to form the basis of a campaign to the south-east, or the same route that was taken by the Arabs when they conquered the Valley of the Indus in the seventh century of our era. The Straits of Ormuz are so narrow that the Persian Gulf might at any time be converted into a lake belonging to the power which may be in possession of Bussorah. Europe is no longer the world, and the true key to the possession of the world is the Valley of the Tigris, and not Constantinople, as it was believed in ancient times." These are a few, and still but a few of the great results likely to arise from the establishment of this line of communication. The subject is too vast to be embraced in a paper such as this; but I trust I have said enough to give you an interest in the subject: and I may add to all its practical advantages, that to men of science, to the geologist, the naturalist, the ethnologist, the archeologist, and many more, new fields of interest and investigation will be opened up, with which Europe has at present but slight acquaintance. The principal objection with which my views on the importance of the

Euphrates route are generally met is dread of the Arabs. I think myself that this difficulty will be easily overcome by judicious management and a little foresight. They are a very singular people, uniting the extremes of good and evil in their characters. I have lived among them for many years, and have experienced both from them, the good and evil—the greatest fidelity and truthfulness in most instances; treachery and dishonesty in some others. I could tell you many anecdotes in illustration of this if time permitted. Our chief difficulties with them would arise from their ignorance, the divided and sometimes hostile state of their tribes, and their blood feuds. But I know, from experience, that by moderation, tact, and truthfulness on our parts, these may be overcome. During the Euphrates Expedition we never lost a single man by the Arabs. They carried large stores of muskets, powder, ammunition, and sums of money amounting to 6,000*l.* and 7,000*l.* for us, attended by only one individual of our party; and in no one instance was there any loss to us. These undertakings were usually paid in advance, and if the Arabs were prevented from fulfilling their engagements, the money paid was scrupulously returned to us. They are, indeed, as much alive to their own interests as other nations, and will soon appreciate the advantages which they will derive from the railroad by regular employment of themselves and their camels, and increased trade. If, however, they should show hostility, contrary to all expectation, such arrangements have been made with the Sultan's Government as will meet even this difficulty. It must be remembered also that a body of workmen such as we must employ, amounting to 10,000 or 12,000, are already a considerably defensive element, and we should also recollect that Ibrahim Pacha kept the Arabs under perfect control. In addition, however, to my own opinion, I will read to you that of a friend, Dr. Aloys Sprenger, the first orientalist of the day, who has resided for many years among them. His description of the Arabs is too good to be omitted. He says,—"Some time back I received a letter from Mr. Porter, at Damascus, expressing great uneasiness on account of the Bedouins; but nothing can be more unfounded than this cause of alarm, for the Bedouins are the most manageable people in the world if judiciously treated. But even if matters were to be mismanaged, as they have been at Aden, and the Bedouins should offer every opposition in their power, it would be of little avail. It would soon be found that, notwithstanding their personal bravery and cunning, they are very much like wild beasts. No one has ever heard of an army of tigers; and so it would be with the Bedouins, who have never been united. Like wild beasts, they would show desperate courage when irritated, but such ferocity can do nothing against discipline and calm resistance. As a proof of this, I may mention that there are some Kurdish villages below Mardin, in the midst of the Desert, which, small as they are, defy all the power of the Shammar tribe, and successfully refuse to be taxed. Whoever possesses the Euphrates has the Bedouins in his pocket; for this cuts them off, and they cannot do without its water and other resources." Those who really entertain fear of the Arabs forget that a railway running through a fertile country is a vein of life. In less than two years we should see towns and villages springing up on both sides of the line, and thousands of these nomads settled in the country. But it is on the gradual construction of a railway, and the time it must require, that I chiefly rest my expectation of ultimate and immediate complete success with the Arabs. The impediments thrown in the way of the Euphrates Expedition by the Pacha of Egypt in 1835, and the delay which was the result, really assisted our operations, by giving more employment to the Arabs, and increasing our intercourse with them. This will be the case with the railway. As far as Aleppo the Arabs cannot offer any impediment; but in any case, long before it reaches that city, they will feel the advantages of more employment, and will be prepared to further instead of impede the works. Viewing things in this light, and looking to the

gradual operation of time to establish our influence among this people, you will readily understand that I have not thought the time arrived for laying down isolated electric wires through their country with any prospect of security. I do not think it necessary to wait for the completion of the railway to accomplish this; but I do think that it would be prudent, and even necessary, to make some of the railway preparations, such as sectional levels, so as to have some kind of influence in the country before laying down telegraphic wires. I, however, thought it right so far to fall in with the views of others as to open negotiations at Constantinople on this subject, and I also arranged with Mr. Barker, Her Majesty's Vice-Consul at Aleppo, who has passed his life in that country, that he should, if required, go among the Arabs to make preliminary arrangements for the establishment of the telegraph, by opening in the first instance the line of Tartar posts, which would at once give us a weekly and speedy communication between England and India. This line existed for many years in Lord Wellesley's time, passing from Constantinople to Aleppo, and thence by Diarbekir to Bussorah, from whence mails were conveyed with great regularity by a fast schooner to Bombay. Another post road is also available from Bagdad by Mosul, and Diarbekir to Constantinople. That by Aleppo would ultimately have the advantage, in consequence of the proposed railway; but for immediate use at this critical moment, we might run some little risk by using that by Diarbekir, which, with the assistance of a qualified person living among the Arabs, would smooth the way for laying down electric wires. Sir John Macneill was of opinion that if a judicious commissioner were sent to reside among the Arabs—a man thoroughly acquainted with the people and their language—it would secure the interests of Great Britain; and if this were desirable in his time, it is imperative now. With regard to our telegraphic communication with India, two companies have been formed for this purpose. The one proposes a line along the Red Sea to Kurrachee; the other along the Valley of the Euphrates to the same port. Each appears to be quite practicable, and I should like to see both in operation. As in the case of the overland communication, England requires the resources of a second line in case of accidents to either; and, irrespectively of this consideration, it is clear there would be ample employment for both. I should like, therefore, to find Government prepared to further and encourage both. To effect this a submarine cable should be laid down from Kurrachee to Ras-el-Had, or some other place near the entrance of the Persian Gulf. Supposing this to be done for the companies, they might then carry their lines to England—one by way of Suez and the other by the Persian Gulf, and as the Atlantic cable might be purchased for this purpose, both might occur to be completed very speedily. The Red Sea line, by following Arabia, at a short distance from the coast, would encounter depths varying from 20 to 100 fathoms nearly the whole way to Suez, coral rocks are only occasionally met with, and we should have the advantage of knowing where an accident might occur, and could prepare the means in consequence of recovering and repairing the broken pieces of the cable. So that the completion of the line from Ras-el-Had to Suez does not seem to offer any practical difficulty. For the other line, there is a choice of two routes, across Asia Minor from Constantinople, as far as Aleppo by one line, and as far as Diarbekir by the other; no difficulties whatever exist, but beyond these places the Arabs are to be taken into account, but this is only for a limited distance. The line of the railway would ultimately be the preferable one, but for immediate operation the other might be somewhat quicker. The work might, therefore, be commenced simultaneously at each extremity. A submarine cable could be laid down from Ras-el-Had to Kurnah, and from the latter place to Bagdad, along the bed of the Tigris; and again between Constantinople and Diarbekir, beginning at several places at once in each part of these lines. The middle part only would be wanting from

Diarbekir to Bagdad, and this might be completed by a line of Tartars, pending the definitive arrangements to be entered into with the Arabs by the Commissioner. If the Government should not be inclined to lay down the cable from Kurrachee to Ras-el-Had for the companies, these having a promise of subsidization from Government on the completion of one or both lines, may very well undertake this part of the expense jointly, and thus we should very soon be in possession of two lines of electric wires to India. The principal points are now before you, both as regards the railway and electric telegraph. Each individual must form his own opinion as to the desirability and practicability of both undertakings. I assume the affirmative in both cases; and I am convinced that a very little of our usual energy will complete both—the electric wires at once and the railway at no distant period. The railway will be carried from the Mediterranean to the Persian Gulf either by means of British skill and capital, or by the French, who are still more anxious than ourselves to undertake the task. Lord Palmerston appears, in some measure, to have adopted one part of the French plan, and seems to advocate a line through Asia Minor, more northward, so as to come in towards the head of the Euphrates. Unlimited funds might, doubtless, accomplish this; but my local knowledge gives me the firm belief that the Taurus can only be passed, without an absolutely ruinous expense, in the direction of Adana and the Orontes. Since my arrival in Dublin a letter has reached me from Paris, saying that, with the advantages of my presence and that of Sir John Macneill in that city, there would be little difficulty in raising 30,000,000 of francs to commence the work, under a joint English and French direction. I met with great difficulties at Constantinople, in consequence of the opposition of the French, who have long seen the importance of the Valley of the Euphrates. They seem to know and feel, like Dr. Sprenger, that its possessor holds the key of the Eastern world. It is, in fact, far richer and more valuable than Egypt; and England, therefore, has now at her feet the opportunity of acquiring the means of greatly increasing her commerce, of consolidating Turkey, and of securing our Indian territory both from internal and external dangers. The proposed railway would be the means of repaying to the East, with tenfold interest, that knowledge and those blessings which came to us originally from thence. It will vastly increase our power, by the speed with which troops may be sent to India, to Persia, and to Central Asia, and it will bring in its train military, political, and commercial advantages; and may I not add—it will extend the greatest of all blessings, by giving Christianity to millions and millions of the benighted peoples.

"On the Isthmus of Suez," by Dr. T. Hodgkin, communicated by Dr. Norton Shaw.—Having visited Egypt at a time when the proposal to unite the Mediterranean and Red Seas by cutting a canal through the Isthmus of Suez was exciting much attention, it was impossible for me not to take a lively interest in the question, although I had no personal interest to bias my judgment on either side. I understood that the French were for the proposed canal, and the English, for the most part, opposed to it; but I could discover no reason for the question assuming this national character, beyond the fact that, more than twenty years ago, when an English engineer had furnished the most practical and ocular demonstration that a railroad might easily and advantageously be constructed between Alexandria, Cairo, and Suez, the French interfered and declared that they would not sanction the execution of such a road, and that this expression of will on their part had been fully able to delay the commencement of the work for many years, to the detriment of Egypt, and to the serious inconvenience of commerce. I could perceive no reason which should induce England to retaliate this opposition of France under a different dynasty. I listened attentively to the arguments which were adduced, and I think I saw enough both of the Mediterranean shore and the African desert, to permit me, with the aid of the practical informa-

tion which I received, to arrive at a tolerably decided conclusion. I went by the railway from Alexandria to Cairo, in the short space of three hours and three quarters, including a good half hour spent in crossing the Nile in a steamboat. I likewise performed the journey from Cairo, about half way across the Desert, towards Suez, and back again, as an easy morning's ride, over that portion of the railroad which had then been completed. It was obvious, from the character of the country, that the railroad was of comparatively easy and cheap construction, and I was assured that the remainder of the line presented no more formidable obstacles. It was therefore very evident that this route between the two seas will furnish the greatest facilities of transport both to natives and Europeans, and on terms sufficiently moderate to admit of the agricultural peasantry not only travelling by it themselves, but also of conveying their goods and beasts of burden. To English passengers, whether going to or returning from India, the present railroad offers a most convenient and expeditious mode of transit. These facilities will be materially increased when the railroad is continued to Suez, where the energy of the Viceroy is accelerating the arrangements for the accommodation of passengers and merchandise. To many who may regard mere ease and despatch as of the chief importance, such a means of transport must be highly valuable; but when it is remembered that a large number of travellers must be solicitous to take advantage of their proximity to the many interesting and stupendous works of ancient art which Egypt presents, and who would deplore being in sight of Alexandria, Damietta, and Suez, without drinking of the Nile and visiting the Pyramids, it can scarcely be imagined that a course which must exclude these objects can have the preference. On the other hand, it is urged that a ship-canal across the isthmus must economize time and labour, by enabling passengers and merchandise from any European port to proceed at once to Eastern Africa, India, China, and Australia, without the detention and expense of land-carriage and re-shipment. These objects are represented as being of so great importance to the all-engrossing interest of commerce, that if these pre-eminent advantages could be satisfactorily established, all the comforts and interest of the Cairo route would present their attractions in vain. Hence it will be seen, that the determination of the question mainly turns upon the cost at which the ship-canal in this part of the world can be formed, and on the current expenses required to maintain it in a condition to be at all times available; for the canal, to answer the total outlay, must be kept sufficiently low for it to serve the interests both of the merchants and of the canal proprietors. I confess that my own convictions strongly preponderate on the negative side; and until this question be decided, it is a great pity to raise a political question which, so far as its influence extends, may disturb the peaceful relations which at present happily exist between the two most advanced and important nations of Europe. Although the difficulty at one time supposed to exist in the difference of level between the Mediterranean and Red Seas is now no longer urged, there are other physical difficulties which are of at least equal importance. The canal must not only be made, but must also be maintained in a serviceable condition. Now, it is well known that on the Mediterranean side the sea is not only shallow and sandy, but that its depth is subject to constant variation from the moving character of the sand banks. It might almost be presumed, *a priori*, that the same causes which prevent any of the mouths of the Nile from serving as an available ingress or egress for vessels navigating the Nile, would produce and maintain an effectual obstacle to vessels passing in either direction between the Mediterranean Sea and an artificial canal. I had an opportunity of witnessing a strong confirmation of this inference in proceeding from Alexandria to Jaffa. Although we kept out at sea to the distance of some miles, the captain of the steamboat, which was a much smaller vessel than would be required for Indian or Australian

commerce, thought it needful, in broad daylight, to be frequently using the sounding-line as a security against stranding his vessel. The force of this objection is so far admitted by the advocates of the canal as to induce them to allow that it will be necessary to construct piers advancing some miles into the sea, and that at their mouth, and in the channel between them, it will be requisite to keep dredging-vessels constantly employed to preserve a practicable passage. The inevitable expense of such works must be fatal to the project of a transit from one sea to the other, even if the canal already existed or could be made for a trifling expense. This, however, is so far from being the case, that the construction of the canal itself is known to be attended with immense difficulties, and its projectors are now announcing a probable outlay amounting to eight or ten times the sum for which they originally declared that the canal was to be made. It will, perhaps, be asked in what these difficulties consist? The general facts may be safely stated to be—first, a certain amount of elevated land to be cut through; secondly, land considerably lower than either sea, where very substantial embankments must be thrown up to prevent the neighbouring country from being submerged. Throughout this tract, and probably along the greater portion of the line, a very careful and expensive process of puddling will be absolutely necessary to enable the canal to hold water. Is there the least chance of an amount of commercial transit by this expensive route, sufficient to pay anything like a remunerative interest on so large an expenditure as these operations must require? But if such an interest cannot be relied upon with reasonable confidence, it would seem to be inexcusable folly to commence the work. To this it may be replied, the Egyptian Government will readily supply the deficiency for the sake of the glory of having executed so great a work for the good of the world, as well as for its own advantage. The French advocates of the project may, doubtless, from personal knowledge, be much better able to conjecture what the Viceroy may be persuaded to do, but I cannot bring myself to believe that his real friends, if they have maturely studied the subject, will either encourage or sanction his taking the step, or that his own keen perception and practical knowledge will permit him to be led astray by the plausible arguments of those who, if not from interested motives, from mistaken ideas respecting the merit and glory of the undertaking, may be disposed to press it upon him. Were the necessary capital to be at once obtained, I believe that a very serious obstacle would present itself at the outset in the difficulty of bringing to the field of labour anything like an adequate number of efficient hands, as well as in the expense, trouble, and uncertainty of supplying them with all the necessities of life when brought there. The construction of the canal between the Nile and Alexandria incurred the sacrifice of many thousand lives, besides the outlay of enormous sums of money. But the canal was made through a populous as well as a notoriously fertile district—labourers and provisions were at hand, and supplies of both could readily be brought down the Nile to meet the demand which the extraordinary consumption and distribution occasioned. It is true that a railroad has been easily made across a desert tract between Cairo and Suez; but in this case the labour commenced in a well-provided district, and the railroad as it advanced afforded facility for the conveyance of the labourers, and of their provisions also, including their daily supply of water. In the formation of the proposed canal the like difficulties are far more considerable, and none of these counteracting advantages are offered. As respects Egypt, the effect of the canal, were it successfully completed, must be decidedly injurious. The large and constantly-increasing transit, which is contributing so much to the wealth and improvement of Egypt and the Egyptians, would be diverted to the new line, on which it would confer no benefits, seeing that the ships would traverse the canal without any necessary communication with either shore, except where the locks would require

them to pay dues to the canal company's agents. The tract through which the canal passes would remain as it ever has been, a dreary waste. The course of the canal is too far removed from any well-inhabited or productive country to render it probable that any new port would be established upon it, which might hereafter become an attraction to lucrative commerce. Every sincere well-wisher to Egypt, and to the government under which the country is making such remarkable progress, must therefore feel an interest in the eyes of the Viceroy being opened to the evils which he must inevitably bring upon Egypt, should he be induced by the vain hopes excited by the advocates of the canal to commit his councils and resources to the execution of this project. But perhaps it may be said that the completion of the canal will form an effectual and lasting boundary and separation between the Viceroyalty of Egypt and that part of the Turkish dominions more immediately governed by Constantinople. For almost all practical purposes of government the separation is sufficiently complete at present, and I confess I am at a loss to conceive any benefit which could arise either to the Porte or to the Egyptian Government from such an additional separation as the canal could effect.

Mr. John Pope Hennessy, 'On Agricultural and Manufacturing Industry.' Having contrasted the views of Adam Smith and those of the modern school of British economists, with reference to the relative importance of agriculture and manufactures, the author proceeded to examine the principles on which the modern economists rely. Regarding Mr. Senior as a fair and accurate exponent of the modern school, he made his treatise on Political Economy the groundwork of the memoir. Taking what Mr. Senior calls the *fourth elementary proposition*, Mr. Hennessy stated it in a threefold form:—“(I.) Skill and space remaining unaltered; (II.) additional labour employed on land occasions an increase in the produce, (III.) but an increase in a diminishing ratio.” The five fundamental terms used in treating the agricultural side of the question are—skill, labour, space, produce, and materials. In treating the manufacturing side of the question, however, Mr. Hennessy showed that the modern economists neglected one of these terms, and used another of them with a different signification. He traced at great length the effect of this omission, and pointed out the anomalous results to which it has given rise. Applying a general principle, similar to the fourth elementary proposition, to both sides of the question, he established the following conclusions, viz.:—(1.) That skill and space remaining the same, additional labour is more efficiently employed in agriculture than in manufactures; and (2) that skill remaining the same, additional labour and capital is more efficiently employed in agriculture than in manufactures. Having disposed of the theoretical part of the question, Mr. Hennessy proceeded to examine the practical facts which bear upon it. He quoted largely from the statistics of the growth and prices of cotton in America, and the statistics of the production of corn in Prussia and in Great Britain. From the statistical tables he exhibited, it appeared that practical experience completely confirmed the views of Adam Smith, and was altogether at variance with the opinions of the modern school. The final result of the memoir consisted of an application of the principles it attempted to establish to the laws regulating the incidence of taxation.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.—F.G.; L.K.; R.R.N.; P.—received.

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1825	382 14 0	104 14 0	1486 8 0
1830	241 12 0	93 2 0	1334 14 0
1835	185 3 0	88 17 0	1274 0 0
1840	128 15 0	84 13 0	1213 8 0
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